A HANDBOOK OF PRESENT-DAY ENGLISH

II

ENGLISH ACCIDENCE AND SYNTAX

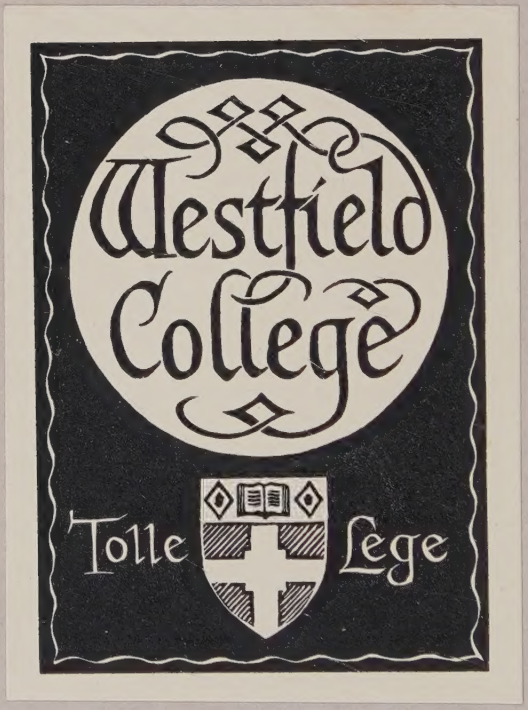
3

Westfield College Library

Author Kruisinga, E.

Class No. PE 1105 (2:iii)

Accession No. 11210



QM Library
23 1242373 0

WITHDRAWN
FROM STOCK
QMUL LIBRARY

11210
26.4.50

ENGLISH ACCIDENCE AND SYNTAX

3

A HANDBOOK OF PRESENT-DAY ENGLISH

BY

E. KRUISINGA

PART II

ENGLISH ACCIDENCE AND SYNTAX

3

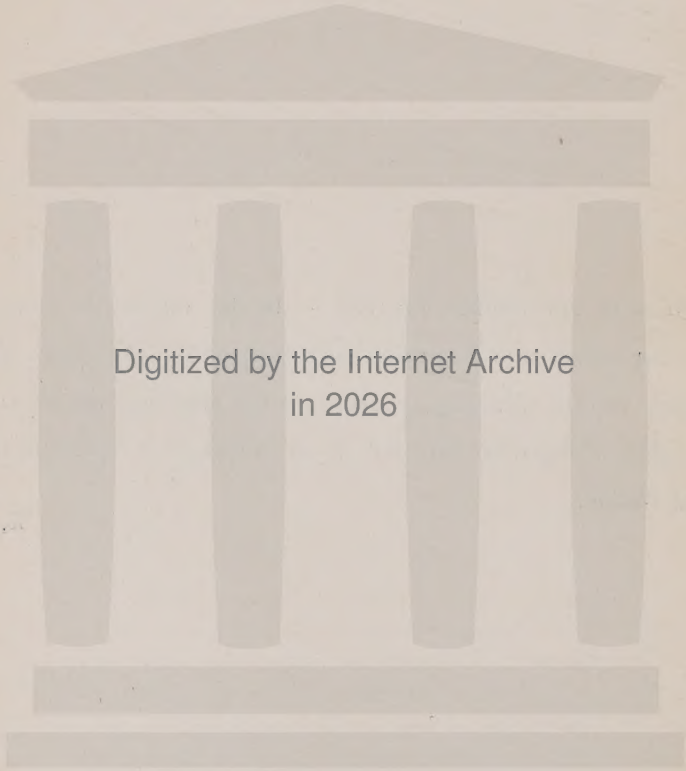
FOURTH EDITION

KEMINK EN ZOON
OVER DEN DOM TE UTRECHT
1925

First published in 1911. Second Edition in 1915. Third Edition in 1922. Fourth Edition (in three volumes) in 1925.

NOTE TO THE FOURTH EDITION. — In this volume the sections on *Composition* and *Repetition* have been partly re-written. The chapter on the *Meaning of Sentences* has also been altered considerably. Otherwise the book is in substance a reprint of the third edition.

K.


Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2026

https://archive.org/details/handbookofpresen0000unse

CONTENTS

WORD-FORMATION

	Page
Introductory	3—4
Comparison	4—35
Forms	4—23
The endings *-er*, *-est*	4—7
More and Most	7—9
The two Methods of Comparison	9—15
Irregular Forms	15—23
Use	23—35
Comparative of Superiority. Comparative of Proportion. Comparative of Graduation. Apparent Comparative. Plain Superlative. Superlative with *at*. Superlative with a possessive. Superlative with *at* and a possessive. Forms and Meanings of the Superlative. Absolute Superlative. Relative and Absolute Superlative. Comparative and Superlative.	
Derivation	36—71
Suffixes	36—63
Verbs. Nouns. Adjectives. Ordinals. Adverbs	
Prefixes	64—71

Page

Composition . . . . . 72—79

Definition of Compounds. Origin: Syntactic and Analogical Compounds. Form: Distance-compounds and Contact-compounds. Semi-compounds. Composition and Derivation.

Conversion . . . . . 80—123

Introductory . . . . . 80—82

Partial and complete conversion.

Verbs as Nouns . . . . . 82—84

Nouns as Adjectives . . . . . 84—104

Form of Attributive Nouns. Relations in Attributive Groups: Proper Names. Names of Materials. Names of Points of the Compass. Appositional Groups. Attributive Nouns and *of*-adjuncts. Attributive Nouns and Genitives. Attributive Nouns and Adjectives. Vague Relation of Converted Noun and Headword. Conversion and Composition. Adjectival character of Converted Nouns: Predicative Use. Comparison of Attributive Nouns. Separation of Attributive Noun from its Headword. Adverbs as qualifiers.

Nouns as Verbs . . . . . 104—107

Adjectives as Nouns . . . . . 107—117

To denote a class of Persons. As Neuter Nouns. As Adjuncts to Pronouns. Adjectives denoting a number of Persons, or Individuals. Used in the Genitive. Used with a Plural Ending. Adjectives denoting Languages, Nationality, Colours. Superlatives.

Adjectives as Verbs . . . . . 117—118

Adjectives as Adverbs . . . . . 118—120

Adverbs as Nouns, Adjectives, Conjunctions, Verbs . . . . . 120—122

Page

Prepositions as Conjunctions . . . . . 122—123

Sentences as Nouns and Verbs. 123

Other Methods of Word-Formation . . . . . 124—131

Shortening. Back-formation. Repetition. Portmanteau Words. Onomatopœia.

THE SENTENCE

Sentence-Structure . . . . . 135—237

The Simple Sentence . . . . . 135—181

The Normal type of an English sentence: Subject and Predicate. Psychological and grammatical subject or predicate. Form of subject. Form of predicate. Verbal sentences. Nominal sentences. Form and character of nominal predicates. Formal Subject: Introductory *it*. Introductory *there*.

Adjuncts of the Subject and Predicate. Form and Meaning of Attributive Adjuncts: Adverbs, Nouns, Adjectives.

Form and Meaning of Adverb Adjuncts. Adverbs. Nouns without a Preposition. Objects: affective, effective, cognate. Indirect and Direct Object. Retained Object. Dativus Ethicus. Prepositional Adjuncts. Prepositional Objects. Transitive and Passive. Intransitive and Reciprocal. Voice: Active, Passive, Reflexive. Objects to Adjectives.

Predicative Adjuncts. Attributive and Predicative Adjectives.

Forms of the Predicate.

Free Adjuncts. With a conjunctive word. Absolute Adjuncts. With *and* or *with*.

Simple and Double Sentences . . . . . 181—187

Double (Multiple) Sentences. Double (Multiple) Subjects, etc. Conjunctions and Adverbs. Sentences with *as* and *than*. Correlatives. *Neither* and *nor*. *No more*.

Page

The Compound Sentence . . . . . 187—217

Noun clauses: Object clauses. Clauses dependent upon adjectives and nouns. Subject Clauses and Object Clauses. Clauses with *that*. With relative words. Without a connecting word. Coordinate noun clauses. Direct and Indirect Style. Semi-indirect style.

Predicate Clauses.

Appositional Clauses.

Adjective Clauses: Relations to their headword. Continuative and Restrictive. Clauses that are neither continuative nor restrictive. Adjective clauses and Relative clauses. Unconnected Restrictive clauses. Relation of Antecedent to Adjective clause.

Adverb Clauses: Classification according to meaning. Introductory words. Clauses of Cause. Of Result. Of Condition. Of Consession. Of Comparison. Continuative Clauses.

Parenthetic and Appended Sentences. . . 217—223

Parenthetic clauses. Appended clauses. Sentences with an appended subject. Both subjects pronouns. An appended gerund as a subject. Appended subjects without a break. Provisional *it*. Appended objects.

Form and Function of Sentences. 223 233

Apparent Simple Sentences. Apparent Coordination. Apparent Compound Sentences. Apparent Subordinate Clauses.

Sentences not distinguishing Subject and Predicate . . . . . 233—237

Sentences without a Subject. Sentences without a Predicate. Sentence-Words.

Page

Concord . . . . . 238—253

Concord of Person. . . . . 238—239

Concord of Number. . . . . 239—253

Subject and Predicative Verb: Words in *-s*. Plural Titles of books. Nouns in *-ics*. Nouns of measure. Collective nouns. Nouns with *of*-adjuncts. Sentences with nominal predicates. Concord of *it* and *that*. *There* as a formal subject. Double Subjects. Subject and Nominal Predicate. Subject and other parts of the Sentence. Nouns and Attributive Adjuncts. Nouns and Referring Pronouns. Indefinite and Referring Pronouns.

Concord of Tense 253

Order of Words . . . . . 254—324

Subject and Verbal Predicate . . . . . 254—270

Normal Order in declarative, interrogative, exclamatory, and optative sentences.

Inverted Order in declarative, interrogative, exclamatory, and optative sentences.

Order of Imperative Sentences.

Sentences with the introductory *There*.

Normal Order and Inversion Compared: Sentences without an Object. Sentences with an Object. Direct Quotations.

Place of Objects. . . . . 271—273

Predicative Adjuncts. 273

Attributive Adjuncts. . . . . 274—288

Adjectives, Pronominal and Numeral Adjectives. Participles and Adjectives in *-able*. Attributive nouns, adverbs, prepositional adjuncts and infinitives.

Page

Adverb Adjuncts . . . . . 288—306

Adjuncts to Adjectives. Adjuncts to Verbs. Adverbs of Indefinite Time. Of Manner. Of Degree. Sentence-Adverbs. Compound Verbs. Adverbs qualifying a non-finite Verb. Exceptional Wordorder.

Fixed Order in Word-Groups . . . . . 306—307

Subordinate Clauses . . . . . 307—315

Inversion. Clauses of concession and of condition without a conjunction. Inversion in other clauses. Dependent questions and exclamations. Relative Clauses. Clauses of Proportional Comparison.

Prepositions. . . . . 315—322

Order of Sentences. . . . . 322—324

Meaning of Sentences . . . . . 325—339

Declarative Sentences. Interrogative. Exclamatory. Imperative.

Dependent Statements, Desires, Questions, Exclamations.

Modality. . . . . 331—333

Negation. . . . . 333—337

Emphasis . . . . . 337—338

Questions and Answers. . . . . 338—339

Bibliography . . . . . 340—350

Index. . . . . 351—360

WORD-FORMATION

INTRODUCTORY

1480. The chief methods of word-formation used in English are three:

1. derivation.
2. composition.
3. conversion.

Of less importance are some other methods, such as *shortening* (as *bus* from *omnibus*) and *onomatopoeia* (*pitter-patter*, *buzz*).

1481. A special kind of derivation is comparison. It is the formation of words by means of suffixes; but the word that takes such a suffix remains the same part of speech (adjective or adverb) and the meaning is so little modified that the suffix might be considered an inflectional ending.

1482. In some grammars comparison is therefore treated as a case of inflection. But if from *tall* we form *taller*, e.g. *he is taller than I*, we have really a new word. For *taller* in this sentence does not express that *he is tall:* both *he* and *I* may be short, and yet we can say that *he is taller than I*. These considerations apply with greater force to such forms as *inner*, *outer*, which have no corresponding adjective in the positive, and do not really express comparison; the same applies to the forms in *-most* mentioned in 1529 [1]). See also 1504.

1) Students of Indogermanic grammar may be reminded of the fact that comparison is a secondary (not original) function of the suffixes now used for that purpose.

It is not only, however, because comparison forms new words that we treat it as a method of derivation. There is also a practical reason for it. The same suffixes serve to express comparison in adjectives, indefinite numerals, and adverbs, whereas inflectional endings are generally peculiar to the several parts of speech. Indeed, endings that express the plural in one part of speech (e.g. ĭz, z, s in nouns) may be the marks of a singular form in another (in the third person of the present tense of verbs).

Comparison

1483. Many adjectives and adverbs whose meaning allows of comparison can take a suffix [-ər, -ĭst] to form the comparative and superlative.

These adjectives and adverbs can also take the adverbs *more* and *most* to express the same meanings. Other words do not take the suffixes, but can only express comparison by means of these adverbs. It is convenient, therefore, in treating of comparison, also to discuss the use of *more* and *most*, although from a syntactic point of view they are adverbs of degree like *less (he is less tall than I)* and *as (he is as tall as I)*, or even like *very* (*he is very tall*).

1484. It will also be necessary to treat fully of the use of *more* and *most*, in order to distinguish the cases in which they express the same meanings as the comparative and superlative proper from those in which they have a different function (as, e.g., in the absolute superlative).

The endings -er, -est

1485. The endings [-ər, -ĭst] are used for adjectives and adverbs:

1. of one syllabe: *great, greater, greatest;* hence also for words in a murmur-diphthong: *sure* [šuər], *surer* [šuərər], *surest* [šuərĭst], *cruel, crueller, cruellest* [1]).

Note medial [-ŋg-], not [-ŋ-], in *longer, longest; stronger, strongest; younger, youngest.*

2. whose stress falls on the last syllable.

the profoundest silence. Wells, Country, p. 174.

in the dullest and ineptest fashion. Athen. 21/9, 12.

No trade, as Mr. Birrel says, in one of his essays, has an obscurer [2]) history. Times W. 30/4, '14.

Butler gives his readers the sense of being in contact with a profounder and sincerer [2]) mind than Bossuet's. Times Lit. 10/8, '16.

His lecture is the concisest and best account of it we have in English. ib. 13/4, '17.

Also *impolite, impoliter, impolitest; incomplete, incompleter, incompletest.*

1486. The endings are also used in the case of:

1. adjectives (not adverbs) ending in weak-stressed *-er, -ow, -y, -le,* preceded by a non-syllabic sound, or in *-some: tender, tenderer, tenderest;* also for *narrow, shallow; happy, unhappy, easy; noble, ignoble, able; handsome, wholesome,* etc.

The Englishman is certainly cleverer, individually, than the German. Eng. Rev. March 1914.

The deadliest terror sits by me at all hours of the day and night. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

---

1) *Real* [riəl] and *cruel* [kruəl] may be considered monosyllabic, as [iə, uə] are murmur-diphthongs [cp. 576; also the transcriptions [ɫoil, roil] for *loyal, royal* in Dunstan's *Eng. Phonetik* p. 76, 86). But the usual pronunciation of *real* is rather in two syllables; and *cruel, loyal, royal* are generally also pronounced in that way.

2) *Sincere* and *obscure* have final stress: [sin'siə, obs'kjuə] for [iə, uə] are murmur-diphthongs.

... preached by the vulgarest impostor.
Academy, 17/8, '12.

The language of the semi-official document is soberer.
Times Lit. 22/1, '20.

The praiseworthiest deeds.

2. the adjectives *civil, common, pleasant, unpleasant, quiet, stupid;* and the adverbs *often* [1]), *early.*

I seemed to have passed out of modern life into a quieter and older world. Benson, Thread of Gold, p. 24.

A quieter day on the British front is reported.
Times W. 26/1, '17.

One schoolmaster, an excellent man, told me that in his experience the English language studies were entrusted to the stupidest, and generally the least competent master in the school. Professor Wyld.

Occasionally also in other adjectives in [-ĭd].

Beside the vivider green of the water-meadows at their base. Sinister Street p. 762.

I have been often richly contented in the squalidest garret.
Gissing, Ryecroft X.

Now and then I have bought a volume of the raggedest and wretchedest aspect. ib. XII.

My satire is against those who see figures and averages, and nothing else — the representatives of the wickedest and most enormous vice of this time.

It is the same more or less with most people; one sees instincts at their nakedest among boys.
Benson, Upton Letters, p. 8.

1487. It is generally thought that the use of the suffixes of comparison depends on the number of syllables of the words. It is clear, however, from the examples given, that

1) Also *more often;* and always in the phrase *more often than not:*
After all, to be consistent is to be stupid more often than not. Oxf. and Camb. Rev. no. 10 p. 182.

the number of syllables is immaterial. What matters is the position of the strongest stress. If the stress is on the last syllable the word takes the suffixes; this applies to the cases of 1485. If the stress is on the penultimate, or further forward, the word generally does not take the suffixes. The words of 1486, however, end in a syllable that becomes, or may become, non-syllabic when the suffixes [-ər, -ĭst] are added, or at least in a syllable that is so short as to be practically negligible. Hence the comparatives and superlatives of these adjectives are stressed on the penultimate (like those of the words in 1485), or on the antepenultimate with a penultimate syllable so short that it may be neglected.

1. The final syllable of the positive becomes non-syllabic in the comparative and superlative of adjectives in syllabic *l*:

[noubl, noublər, noublĭst].

2. It may be syllabic or non-syllabic in the case of adjectives in *-y* (i.e. [ĭ]), *-er:*

happy: [hæpĭ, hæpiər, hæpjər].

tender: [tendər, tendərər, tendrər].

Also in *commoner*, *oftener*, etc.

3. The final syllable is very short in the case of adjectives in *-ow*, and in some others, such as *pleasant*, *stupid*, *rugged*, *wicked*.

It is also evident why the suffixes are used only when a non-syllabic sound precedes the ending: this makes it possible for the *l*, *i*, *w* to become non-syllabic. Thus *clayey* [kleiĭ] could not take -ər and keep its stress on the penultimate; the stress would unavoidably be shifted back to the antepenultimate. The same applies to *servile* [səəvail], etc.

More and Most

1488. The other adjectives and adverbs, the adjectives used predicatively only, and those that have the form of participles, are compared by means of *more* and *most:*

necessary, *more necessary*, *most necessary*, etc.; *blessed*, *more blessed*, *most blessed; more and most afraid.* Also *more* and *most pleased, tired*, although the use of *very* (instead of much) *tired, pleased* shows that these participles are felt to be adjectives.

I never knew a man more entirely just in his dealings than Uncle James, or who regarded every species of meanness with a more thorough contempt. Hugh, Miller, Schools p. 36.

The most enduring side of their art was its wonderful craftsmanship. Times Lit. 12/1, 22.

Molly came up to him with the softest steps, the most hushed breath that ever she could.
Gaskell, Wives III, p. 164.

Riga, the fallen Queen of the Baltic, was the most German town outside Germany [1]). Times W. 31/8, '17.

1489. Attributive nouns and adjectives used attributively only are seldom compared. If they are, it is by means of *more* and *most* [2]).

Of course there is nothing to equal that wholesome smell of brown Windsor soap which pervades even the most cash of all cash chemists. Temple Thurston, City I, ch. 3.

Compound Adjectives

1490. Compound adjectives compare their first element according to 1485 f. as long as there is a feeling for the separate meaning and function of the two elements: *well-known, better-known, best-known; the change is even deeper-rooted than that; all our oldest-established institutions.*

A prouder-hearted man I never met.
Trollope, Framley ch. 36.

---

1) Even if the word were stressed on the last syllable, it would not take the suffix, on account of its meaning; see 1494.

2) Some grammarians instance *choicer, choicest, chiefest, daintier, daintiest;* but these words *are* adjectives, no matter what they *were* once. See 1707 f.

I never saw a finer-looking man.

The largest longest-headed of schemes [1]) ask occasionally for something substantial and immediate.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 24, p. 247.

He is the best-bred-looking and handsomest little fellow I ever saw. Burnett, Fauntleroy ch. 2.

He was perhaps the biggest-chested and longest-armed man I ever saw. Ridder Haggard, King Solomon's Mines.

The bowl I shall always consider my most highly prized and hardest won trophy. Patterson, Tsavo p. 104.

1491. But in other adjectives *more* and *most* are used.

The more well-to-do tradesmen. Essays V, 53.

His most well-to-do parishioners.

Sweet, Spoken English p. 50.

The name of Thomas Chatterton, the youngest and most short-lived of English poets. A. Lang, Hist. of Eng. Lit. p. 434.

Macaulay was the most self-confident of men.

Bailey, Johnson, p. 39.

May they not in reality have a wider and more far-reaching significance? Nineteenth Century Febr. 1908.

A better and more kind-hearted fellow does not exist.

Whatever was bravest and most true-hearted in Leicester.

All that was most intelligent, most courageous, most high-spirited among the Englishry.

Far-fetched — more far-fetched — most far-fetched.

The two Methods of Comparison

1492. The preceding sections state what are the usual forms of comparison. The general statements do not apply to all words, however; and secondly there are sometimes special reasons, chiefly of style, to deviate from the normal form. These two groups of 'exceptions' will be discussed in the following sections.

---

1) Misprint for *schemers?*

1493. Some adjectives of one syllable are invariably, or generally, compared by means of *more* and *most*. This applies to *real*, *right*, *wrong*, *wan;* as to *real*, it may be considered to have the strong stress on the penultimate: compare the footnote on p. 5.

> The figures of Spartacus, Montrose, Hofer, Garibaldi, Hampden, and John Nicholson were more real to him than the people among whom he lived.
>
> Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 10, p. 113.

1494. The reason why the adjectives mentioned in the preceding section, apart from *real*, take *more* and *most*, may be that their meaning, being absolute, does not really admit of comparison [1]). It may also be a matter of style: they are seldom compared in spoken English, and in literary English many prefer the forms with *more* and *most* to the simpler forms with a suffix. Occasionally, however, we find *righter*, *rightest*. See also below 1499.

> Very few care two straws about truth, or have any confidence that it is righter or better to believe what is true.
>
> Butler, Way of All Flesh.
>
> As for the parson, he is officially bound to believe that the conclusions of the Church as expounded by himself, are the very rightest that the human mind is capable of reaching.
>
> Pedder, Where Men Decay p. 56.
>
> But we were not quite like our two selves when all things were at their rightest. Morgan, Vance ch. 19, p. 183.

1495. Among the monosyllabic adjectives that compare by means of *more* and *most*, grammarians sometimes mention *just*. The forms *juster*, *justest*, however, are by no means rare. In spoken English the adjective is seldom compared.

---

1) For this reason adjectives denoting nationality, whether stressed on the last syllable or not (*French*, *German*) never take the suffixes. See the last quotation of 1488.

To have been more effective, it should have been juster.
Gaskell, Life of C. Brontë ch. 19.

Men who dwarf human nature do this. The gods are juster.
Meredith, Harrington ch. 24, p. 247.

At Westminster there is a juster reciprocity of position.
Trollope, Three Clerks p. 394.

It might be juster to say that....
Trollope, Dr. Wortle ch. 1.

Is it too much to hope that it may teach the Russian government that the justest policy is also the only policy which ultimately pays? Everyman 7/7, '16.

No juster or more open-minded censor. A. Dobson in Preface to Scott's Lives of Novelists.

Indomitable, remorseless, unhumorous, proud, the pose of the body was absolutely, one felt, the justest possible.
Walpole, Duchess of Wrexe, ch. 1 § 2.

1496. In spoken English *tireder* is sometimes used. I have once found it in print. On the number of syllables in [taiəd], see *English Sounds*, ch. 2 (*Diphthongs*).

"Positive. There could be no mistake. He's just the same, a trifle tireder, a trifle lower down -- but the same, oh yes."
Walpole, Duchess of Wrexe, ch. 1 § 4.

1497. Adjectives with the stress on the last syllable generally take *more* and *most* when they end in a 'heavy' consonant-group. It is a little uncertain what groups are heavy; two oral stops may be considered heavy, as in *exact*. A combination of an open consonant or vowellike with a stop is not heavy, as *robust*, *profound*. Yet, such a form as *robustest* would probably be avoided on account of the accumula'ion of hissing-sounds, and perhaps still more because the two last syllables would end in the same consonant-group; but compare *justest*.

There is evidence of his having acted with the most exact fairness throughout the investigation.
Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. 1.

Some of the more eager ran alongside the rails.
Garvice, Lorrie p. 71.

He fled my mother's virtues before my distincter [1]) memories began. Wells, Tono-Bungay.

1498. Some adjectives in -ər rarely take *-er* and *-est*, as *eager, proper*. But deviations are occasionally met with.

What more proper course could any one have adopted.
Times.

I have just put by a photograph of my father for you as he lay in that last stillness of his, that you will see at a properer time. Wells, Passionate Friends ch. 1 § 2.

1499. Adjectives (and adverbs) that can take a comparative and superlative with a suffix often form them with *more* and *most*. The absolute meaning may prevent the suffixes being used, but the reasons are chiefly stylistic. Thus *more* or *most* may be preferred in order to preserve the balance of phrase when other adjectives occur that *must* take *more* or *most*, or are qualified by *less*, *least* (*a*); also when the adjective follows its noun (*b*). On the other hand forms with the suffixes may be exceptionally used for the same reason as under *a* (*c*).

a. As the winter term drew to a close, Gordon grew more and more sure of himself [2]).
Waugh, Loom of Youth I ch. 3.

The more carefully the events of the last fortnight are studied, the more clear does it become that the force which has brought about the present astonishing situation is the Army. Spectator 8/8, '18.

(John Wilkes) asserted, incarnated, and championed the proud proverb that an Englishman's house is his castle.

---

1) The spelling suggests a combination of two stops here, but *distinct* is practically [dĭstĭŋt].

2) i. e. at first he was not at all sure of himself. See 1535.

Cobbett was not more robust or less servile, and in this sense Wilkes had character. Times Lit. 19/10, '17.

He had grown more grave; he was certainly more of a man. Crawford, Lonely Parish ch. 18.

London, again, is the most wealthy and one of the least commodious capitals in the world. Escott, England I, p. 128.

b. No Government measure had ever a background more grim or a justification more imperative. Times W. 12/4, '18.

c. The children would have been juster, as they were kinder. Times Lit. 12/4, 18.

The extremist must be right both morally and intellectually, merely because he is an extremist, and the farther he goes the righter he is. ib. 20/1, '16.

One comfort was that Anne was the patientest, gentlest invalid that could be. Gaskell, Life of C. Brontë ch. 17.

From the cradle to the grave, fighting, rightly understood, is the business, the real, highest, honestest business of every son of man. Hughes, Tom Brown's Schooldays.

Of all the insolent, all the foolish persuasions that by any chance could enter and hold your empty little heart, this is the proudest and foolishest. Ruskin, Sesame, Introd. p. XIII.

The schools were not progressive. Little was taught, he complains, except Latin and Greek, and that in the dullest and ineptest fashion. Athen. 21/9, '12.

She was always hearing a good many words besides from even the boldest and baddest characters. Galsworthy, Beyond.

The kindest-hearted and gentlest of men. Punch (Poutsma II p. 488).

1500. When two forms of comparison connected by *and* qualify the same noun, the same method of comparison is often used; see the quotations in the preceding section. If this is not done the form with the suffix generally precedes (*a*). This is sometimes done, for reasons of style, even when the form with the suffix would be normal for both (*b*).

a. Out of doors Nature wore her mildest, most beneficent aspect. Elizabeth, Priscilla.

The wild cat is the shyest animal of our eastern forests, and yet the fiercest and most formidable.

Harper's Monthly, Jan. 1918.

Information about one of the grandest and most inaccessible parts. Times Lit. 2/11, '17.

b. Their usual quiet and holy life seemed quieter and more holy. Shorthouse, Inglesant.

1501. If in a succession of comparatives or superlatives the two methods are mixed, this may be done for the sake of emphasis. For by using the different methods the adjectives are separated, and each makes its own effect.

English schoolboys were the happiest, healthiest, the laziest, most natural, most truthful, pluckiest, the most self-reliant, and the most original schoolboys in Europe.

Report in Times W. 9/1, '14.

In this quotation the emphasis is further increased by the repetition of the article. If the two adjectives are not intimately connected it may even be unavoidable to use the two methods. Thus, in the following quotation it would be hardly possible to use *most marked and early*.

In the strong vowels the most marked and earliest change is the smoothing of the O. E. diphthongs.

Sweet, Grammar I § 796.

1502. Sometimes the unusual form, both of adjectives and attributive nouns, is chosen because it is for that very reason the more emphatic one (*a*), or because it has a comic effect (*b*).

a. The most bitter criticism of the uncertainty of the methods of English common law has been offered by Bentham.

Vinogradoff, Common Sense in Law p. 205.

Three members of almost the selectest company of great writers that the world can furnish.

Saintsbury, Bookman Sept. 1919.

He wanted to make his pictures alive-er and liker every time. Wells, Joan and Peter ib. 7 § 3.

b. You are the confoundedest jay that ever lived. Punch.
I've got the rippingest hat. ib.
Even the ugliest, reddest-faced, turnedest-up-nosed girl looked pretty. Besant, Ready Money Mortiboy.
The wife is apt to remember that she is the bosomest of her husband's friends. Trollope, Prime Minister ch. 3.

Irregular Degrees of Comparison

1503. The degrees of comparison of the following adjectives and adverbs are irregular (*a*). Other comparatives and superlatives have no positive that corresponds in form; but they are looked upon as comparatives and superlatives to words that have an analogous meaning (*b*).

a.	far	farther / further	farthest / furthest	near	nearer	nearest / next
	late	later / latter	latest / last	old	older / elder	oldest / eldest
b.	good / well	better	best	little	lesser / less	least
	bad(ly) / evil / ill	worse	worst	much / many	more	most

1504. Several of the irregular forms are not used as real comparatives and superlatives, as e.g. *latter*, *lesser*, *next;* other forms, too, such as those connected with adverbs (*inner*, *outer*, *utter*), though etymologically forms of comparison, do not express comparison, but contrast. Some words may be used as real forms of comparison, such as *better* (*Your pronunciation is better than John's*) but not necessarily: if we say that a patient is *better* it does not mean that he is more than *well*, indeed it may mean that the patient is by no means *well*. The discussion of the meanings of the above words is properly the business of the dictionary, but it may be useful to treat of the most important of them here.

Far **1505.** *Farther, farthest* usually refer to space (*a*) and time (*b*); occasionally *farther* means *additional* (*c*).

a. If you can bear your load no farther, say so.
It was the farthest piece of travel accomplished.
b. Then we need argue no farther.
c. I took no farther heed of her.
Weyman, Under the Red Robe ch. 7.

1506. *Further* may refer to space and time (*a*) but also to what is additional (*b*).

a. It was not thought safe for the ships to proceed further in the darkness.
There is nothing further from his thoughts than scepticism.
b. I wish to hear no further details.
The reader must submit to be told one or two further and still smaller details respecting the man, and then the man shall be allowed to make his own way.

1507. *Furthest* is rarely used instead of *farthest;* note the expression *at the furthest* 'at the latest' when a future time is referred to.

Note *furtherest: to the furtherest corner of England.* Patterson, Stephen Compton p. 221. It is perhaps a nonce-word; it is at any rate exceptional, and hardly Standard English.

Late **1508.** The regular comparative is *later.*

He came later than I expected.

1509. The form *latter* is only used to refer to the second of two persons or things mentioned before (opposite: *former*). It has not the meaning of a comparative now.

As Lord Grey's son and successor says, the book is a sketch, not a picture; "the latter," he hopes, "may follow later." Times Lit. 21/12, '17.

Very little difference separated the Inspector of the Board of Education from him of the local authority; the former had a little more prestige, the latter a little more power.

Times Ed. S. 22/1, '20.

1510. *Latter* is also used in some standing phrases for 'second', especially with *half* and *part* in names of parts of the year, etc.: *the latter half of August* (*this week*), *of the story, the Rhine,* etc.

It was composed in the latter half of his long life.

1511. Note also *latter-days* 'modern times':

Now Barrabas was a robber in the old time, but in these latter days he is the hero of Mary Corelli's last romance.

1512. In attributive use the form is *latter-day:*

The whole circumstances were thoroughly mediaeval from a latter-day English point of view. [1])

1513. The usual superlative of *late* is *last,* which may refer to time or to order.

It happened on one of the last days of his life.

Among the many finely illustrated books of last season were several containing excellent interpretations of pictures.

The last news we heard was more favourable.

At the last meeting of the French Académie des Inscriptions M. Léon Dorez announced an interesting discovery.

Athenaeum 28/1, 1908.

I have had opportunities during the last summer, in the course of a motor tour, of observing the actual condition of affairs in Bosnia and Herzegowina.

Oxf. and Camb. Rev. no. 5.

In the last article we considered our subject under the

1) Note also 'the Latter-day Saints', the name by which the Mormons call themselves.

headings of situation, aspect, outlook, and planning. In this article it will be the writer's endeavour to treat the matter more as regards details in construction and equipment.
Bibliophile II (1909).

1514. *Last* may also mean 'greatest' or 'very great'. In this meaning we also find *first*.

Keep both the letters about you and give them up to no one. They are of the last importance to your mistress's interest. Collins, Woman in White.

He rested the case for Home Rule on three grounds — the Imperial, the Parliamentary, the Irish. They are all of the first, though not of equal importance. Daily News, 9/2, '12.

1515. *Latest* is used to express 'most recent'.

The corset illlustrated here is the latest fashion for this season.

Messrs. Macmillan are to be congratulated on having secured as the writer of the latest of this charming series, one who is obviously steeped both in knowledge and love of the country he describes. Athen. 28/12, '12.

The act would suffice to condemn them, if it stood alone, but, as all the world knows, it is only the latest in a long chain of similar acts. Times W. 7/6, '18.

There is nothing but encouragement in the latest news that comes from the battle front. Times W. 13/4, '17.

1516. When order and time are contrasted we use *latest* to express time.

Mr. Patterson seems to intimate in the introduction to his latest book that it is intended to be his last.
Athenaeum 30/11, 1907.

Mr. George Edwardes is having some trouble in finding a suitable title for the new Gaiety production. "*The Latest Girl*" has been proposed. Might we suggest, following up this line of thought, that "*The Last Girl*" would please a great many playgoers? Punch.

A pathetic interest attaches to this volume as the work upon which its brilliant author was engaged at the time of his death; and containing his latest utterances on the subject to which he had devoted his strenuous life, it will be doubly valued alike by his friends and the many admirers of his scholarship. Athenaeum 8/8, 1908.

(Here *last* would be wrong: the reviewer wishes to say that the book will be valued, first for being the last book of the author ('pathetic interest'), secondly for containing the writer's most recent contribution to the subject; *last* would repeat the first statement).

1517. In the following passages *latest* and *last* are used to refer to the same book in the same meaning on one page.

This little work in no way competes with the very excellent books of my friend Dr. Sweet. The *Primer of Spoken English* contains texts, but they are of an entirely different character from those I have chosen; his latest work, *The Sounds of English*, while dealing with many of the questions dealt with here, deals with them in a different manner and from a less special point of view. I ought to say, perhaps, that the main features of the present book were mapped out before the appearance of Dr. Sweet's last work.

Wyld, Teaching of Reading.

Near 1518. *Nearest* refers to neighbourhood in space or time, *next* to order in space or time. Hence, if we go from A via B to C, we can say shortly after leaving A, that B is the *next* town we shall pass through, although A is still the *nearest* town. And at ten minutes past twelve, twelve is the *nearest* full hour, but one is *the next;* but at ten minutes to twelve we may call twelve both the *nearest* and the *next* full hour.

The question whether it is so or not might be interesting, but there is next to no evidence either way.

Stubbs, Early Engl. Hist. p. 4.

Old **1519.** *Elder, eldest* are used attributively only. They are especially found before nouns expressing relationship to distinguish members of the same family.

He had three sons. The two elder brothers failed in their attempt to win the hand of a princess. The youngest profited by their experiences.

A rich old Russian had three daughters.... The two eldest wished for trinkets, but the youngest said she had a request to make....

I was not an elder son [1]). My brother inherited a pretty penny but I.... was obliged to look around me for a livelihood.

Elder women are always consulted before younger ones are presented to them.

A young girl would (in such circumstances) wait for an elder woman to open the conversation [2]).

1520. With a possessive pronoun we also find *elder* as a converted adjective or as a noun.

Michael met his eye without embarrassment; respectful, as became a young man towards one so much his elder.

Cornhill, Sept. 1912.

To her, as to her elders, the telephone which saves so much unnecessary and wearisome correspondence is available.

Daily Mail.

1521. In literary (or archaic) English *elder, eldest* are used for the colloquial *older, oldest;* but in this case difference of rank is usually implied:

Herein I am justified by the elder texts.

Othello ed. Hart, Preface.

---

1) Note the indefinite article before *elder son.* It shows that *elder son* expresses *one* idea, viz. *heir.*

2) In the same book:

A young girl, when presented to an older woman, waits for the latter to hold out her hand.

The oldest of the Royal Knights is the Emperor of Austria; the next eldest is the King of Greece.

Note *elder* 'senior': *the elder Pitt.*

Best **1522.** In some cases *best* is used adverbially, like *most*, to express the superlative.

We, so lately promoted to the title of best-hated nation, have hardly had time to adjust ourselves to our privileges.
Times Lit. 23/3, '16.

During the past twelve months I have been one of the best-abused men in the British Isles.
Morrell, Truth and the War.

Little **1523.** *Little*, when referring to size (opposite: *great, big*), compares *smaller, smallest.*

As *little* usually implies some personal feeling on the part of the speaker, which *small* does not, *smaller, smallest* are not really the degrees of comparison of *little.* Hence we find *littler, littlest,* although rarely.

And that tenderness for little children ... now made him forsake June and follow these littler things [1]).
Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 7 p. 96.

The littlest things of daily life suggest songs to her,
Academy 16/6, 1904.

The weather had suddenly hardened, a clear dry cold made the paths and road like metal, and not the littlest star was missing from the quivering assembly in the sky.
Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 11 § 23.

The superlative *least* is also found in this sense, but few would defend its use:

On the least finger of one hand was a seal ring.
Williamson.

1) i. e. his grand-children.

1524. *Little,* when referring to quantity or number, compares *less, least.*

He received less money than he expected.

I think if we had had another week or two, and a few less helpers [1]), we might have got Mr. Densham in.
Oppenheim, As a Man Lives.

I suppose you agree that 19 is less than 20.

In its foundation, and to a less degree, in its history, Westminster differs almost as much from Winchester and Eton as from Harrow and Rugby. Westminster School.

1525. Note the use of *less* in the following sentence:

That was only a year ago, less one month.

1526. The use of *less, least* in the meaning 'less important, least important' is obsolete except in the phrase *no less a person than.* We have an archaic use of *less, least* in the following.

The School was smaller than Winchester and Eton, and had a less place in the College of which it formed a part.
Westminster School.

It was not the least of Atterbury's services to the School that he brought back Nicoll to its labours. ib.

She loved everything, to the least hollow and secret spring and hidden place of flowers. Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 6.

1527. It may be noted that it is occasionally impossible to tell 'size' from 'quantity'. Hence we find *a smaller*, but also *a less, amount; in a less*, but also *a smaller, degree.* Compare also:

The upper rafters have a less (= smaller) inclination than the lower ones.

They had been too long accustomed to tyranny and corruption to have the smallest (= least) faith in the new panacea.

1) Note that *less* is an adjunct to *few* here.

1528. *Lesser* is only used attributively, chiefly in the meaning of 'minor, less important' when we divide persons or things into two classes: *lesser* and *greater*.

> Other similar memories of childhood dropped from him occasionally in his lesser writtings. Forster-Gissing.
>
> The lesser rivers of Asia Minor. To choose the lesser evil.
>
> It was part of his programme to study the lesser (i. e. people) as well as the great. Castle, Rose of the World.

Note the phrases *the Lesser Bear*, *the Lesser Prophets*. *Lesser Asia*, also called *the Little Bear*, *the Minor Prophets*, *Asia Minor*.

Superlatives in -most

1529. *-most* [-moust, -məst] is also used as a suffix to form adjectives and adverbs in the superlative degree (see 1482). These derivatives generally express position in place. They are formed from:

1. adjectives and adverbs: *backmost*; also from many comparatives in *-er: hindermost, innermost, outermost, uttermost, uppermost, lowermost, furthermost, bettermost, nethermost.*

2. nouns: *bottommost, topmost, eastmost, southmost, centremost, headmost, rearmost, sternmost.*

3. adverbs: *foremost, inmost, outmost, utmost, hindmost, upmost, downmost, hithermost.*

Use of the Comparative

Comparative of Superiority

1530 The commonest function of the comparative is to express a higher degree of a quality in one person or thing than in another (*a*), or in one person or thing at different times or in different circumstances (*b*).

> *a.* A good teacher is more valuable than a good examination. History IV no. 14, p. 79.
>
> No schools were more famous than those of Jarrow and York. Green, Short Hist. p. 38.

He works harder than you think.

b. And our limbs grow younger, and our eyes brighter as we watch them. Times Lit. 23/12, '15.

Gradually she grew calmer.

Bennett, Old Wives' Tale I ch. 2 § 2.

On the construction of comparative clauses, see also *Sentence-Structure.*

1531. A less common use of this comparative is the comparison of the degree of two different qualities of the same person or thing. Compare 1536.

The wall was in some parts thicker than it was high.

Poutsma II p. 491.

The new thoroughfare leading from Sloane Street to Walton Street is rendered imposing by Queen Anne Mansions not more spacious than picturesque. Escott, England I p. 132.

Comparative of Proportion

1532. The comparative is also used to express that two qualities increase or decrease at an equal rate. This use is formally distinguished by the prefixing of *the* (*a*) or by the use of the conjunction *as* (*b*) In the second case the equality of the rate is not so clearly expressed as in the first.

a. The more she thought of him, the sorrier she became for him. Vachell, Quinneys'.

The more he contemplated the thing the greater became his astonishment. Wells, Harman ch. 9 § 3.

The more tools we employ the more complex our world becomes, and the more agile must be the mind that is to make such a world its home. Times Lit. 24/7, '19.

Georgiana, then, is a rather elusive character. The more I see of her the less I understand her. Allen, Kentucky ch. 6.

The judges and officials of the Indian Courts are not to blame. It is the rules which govern the right to appeal that are wrong, and the sooner they are amended the better.

Times W. 5/1, '17.

b. "You're a queer chap," said his brother, "and you grow queerer as you grow older." Vachell, Brothers ch. 15.

1533. One of the two comparatives of proportion may show its subordination by the conjunction *that*.

The more that one has, the more one wants. Oxf. Dict.

One wants the more, the more that one has. Oxf. Dict.

The more that her organization is perfected, the more that definite theories of the nature and limits of her authority are enunciated, the more does she (viz. the Church) tend to become an *imperium in imperio*, intent upon the maintenance of her own class interest. Constitut. Essays p. 311.

1534. We have a similar use of the comparative when the increase or decrease is represented to be dependent upon something, which is generally mentioned in a clause or adjunct, expressing reason or cause (*a*), occasionally in a different way (*b*).

a. Life seemed the better worth living because she had glimpsed death. Vachell, Spragge p. 191.

His extortions were the more resented since he kept no order. Davis, Med. Europe p. 230.

The words sketch for us a scholar's life, the more touching in its simplicity that it is the life of the first great English scholar. Green, Short Hist. p. 39.

The opposition to this Bill was none the less skilful and determined because it was working underground or behind the scenes. Times W. 16/8, '18.

An amusement none the less genuine that it was mingled with an unconfessed admiration. Herford, Shakespeare p. 19.

If you do not give me my thousand guilders at once, it will be the worse for you. De Wilde, Reader p. 40.

(The book) is too closely studded with Sanskrit terms to appeal to an indolent reader, but to qualified students it will be the more useful on this account. Times Lit. 5/1, '17.

b. The enveloping gloom seemed to make my chimney-corner only the more cosy. Gissing, Ryecroft p. 22.

Comparative of Graduation

1535. The comparative is repeated to express that a quality increases or decreases at an even rate. The two comparatives are connected by *and*.

In this case the form with *more* is often preferred. Occasionally the comparative is repeated twice.

> The road got worse and worse, until there was none at all. Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 3.
>
> From that time greater and greater leniency was shown them. Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. 2.
>
> It seems to me more and more odd that so nice a girl could admit London's limitations. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 14.
>
> I had a perfectly terrified instant, for Barbara looked at the fire and burned redder and redder and redder. ib. ch. 14.

The comparative of superiority can express the same meaning if accompanied by an adverb like *gradually;* see the last example of 1530, but the repetition is naturally more emphatic.

Apparent Comparative

1536. We have an apparent comparative when two qualities are contrasted. In this case *more* has the sense of *rather*.

> In Béarn, where the oxen are more grey than dun-coloured,... Times W. 4/1, '18.
>
> He spoke rather as if he was more amused than annoyed. Gaskell, Wives III, p. 161.

When the second part of the sentence is a *clause* with *than* we have a real comparative; see 1531.

Use of the Superlative

Plain Superlative

1537. The superlative is used attributively and predicatively to express the highest degree of a quality in one or more out of a greater number of persons or things. Many examples have been given in the preceding sections on the form of the superlative, and on the use of the article before predicative superlatives.

The superlative is also used predicatively to express the highest degree of a quality in one and the same person or thing at different times or places, or in different circumstances. For the use of the article see the sections on *Articles*.

Henry took Anna to the canal-entrance because the buildings looked best from that side.
Bennett, Anna of the Five Towns, ch. 8.

1538. The superlative is also used adverbially. For examples and for the use of the article, see 1236 ff.

Superlative with *at* **1539.** The superlative with *at* is only used adverbially. For examples see 1236 ff.

Superlative with a Possessive **1540.** The superlative preceded by a possessive pronoun is used as an adverb-adjunct to verbs.

Harry began to whistle: a sign in him that he was thinking his hardest. Meredith, Harrington ch. 32 p. 349.
Carver smiled his pleasantest.
Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 28 p. 182.
It is not the English way to deal hardly with an honourable foe who has fought his hardest and been fairly beaten.
Pilot 25/1, 1902.

Superlative with *at* and a Possessive **1541.** The superlative with *at* and a possessive pronoun can be used predicatively (*a*); also in attributive adjuncts following their headword (*b*).

a. But Miss E. is not at her best when the scope of the picture is on a larger scale. Athenaeum, 28/12, '12.
But our Platonist is at his happiest when he endeavours to persuade a little girl of the separate existence of the soul.
Edinb. Rev. April 1908.
She knew that she looked at her best in this attire.
Garvice, Staunch as a Woman, p. 83.
He was the most convinced of Londoners because it was

in London that life, which to him meant the exercise of the intellectual and social faculties, was to be found at its eagerest and fullest. Bailey, Johnson, p. 133.

Mr. Max Beerbohm is at his most amusing in his papers on the Englishman's speaking of French and on the way in which an eminent man should receive an ardent young admirer. Times Lit. 7/10, '20.

She first saw the hill at its gayest, when that brief, brilliant hour before autumn bedecked Cosdon.
Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 6, p. 43.

The steps are at their steepest just here.
Peard, Madame p. 74.

b. He was the type of English young manhood at its healthiest and most vigorous. Times Lit. 9/8, '18.

There is no surer way of testing the greatness of a really great writer than by consideration of his work at its weakest, and comparison of that comparative weakness with the strength of lesser men at their strongest and their best.
Swinburne, Dickens p. 43.

1542. Occasionally this superlative is used adverbially.

For the charm of February is that the weather no longer matters; it is a month at its best of all hope, and at its worst of no disappointment. Times W. 22/2, '18.

1543. Instead of the possessive pronoun we sometimes find the definite article. This construction occurs with the predicative superlative only, evidently owing to the close resemblance of function between predicative adjectives and adverbs.

They were at the lowest now, they could not be worse.
Gaskell, North and South ch. 8.

Forms and Meanings of the Superlative

1544. In the preceding sections we have discussed four forms of the superlative, apart from its formation with a suffix or with *most*:

1. the plain superlative.
2. the superlative with *at*.
3. the superlative with a possessive pronoun.
4. the superlative with both *at* and a possessive pronoun.

1545. The functions of the forms have been mentioned above. From what has been said it follows that different forms are used in the same functions:

1. the attributive superlative may be plain or with *at* and a possessive.
2. the predicative superlative may be plain or with *at* and a possessive.
3. the adverbial superlative may be plain, or with *at*, or with a possessive pronoun.

1546. The plain attributive superlative expresses the highest degree of a quality in one or more persons or things compared with others. The one with *at* and a possessive expresses the highest degree in one and the same person at different places or times or in different circumstances.

1547. The plain predicative superlative may express either of these meanings; the one with *at* and a possessive is used for the second meaning only.

1548. The use of the plain adverbial superlative and the one with a possessive is parallel to that of the predicative superlatives. It is an adjunct of manner.

The adverbial superlative with *at* is used as an adjunct of time or circumstances.

Absolute Superlative

1549. We also find *most* as an adverb of degree before adjectives and adverbs to express a very high degree. There is no real comparison in this case and the words that can take a suffix formally distinguish this use by

taking *most*. But in the case of other words the form is identical with the real superlative. To distinguish it from the real superlative we use the name absolute superlative. The superlative expressing the highest degree is called the relative superlative.

1550. The absolute superlative is used attributively (*a*), predicatively (*b*), and adverbially (*c*).

a. The deliverance of Jerusalem, though its influence on the war may be relatively remote, must remain for all time a most memorable event in the history of Christendom.
Times W. 14/12, '17.

Everything about the place tells of the most dainty order, the most exquisite cleanliness.
Gaskell, Life of C. Brontë ch. 1.

Only by doing so can they obtain this most excellent remedy. Advt.

He is the vicar, and he is a most good man, whom I have always found most kind. Crawford, Lonely Parish ch. 5.

Thanks for your most kind note. Ainger p. 175.

The grammatical construction of Hungarian corresponds in many most important particulars with that of Finnish.
Athen. 29/2, 1908.

b. Our stay with Lord and Lady Aberdeen was also most pleasant. Du Maurier in Ainger p. 144.

'Yes,' she thought, 'everybody has been most kind.'
Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 1.

The enemy resistance was most stubborn.
Times W. 31/8, '17.

c. Important alterations have most certainly taken place.
Dicey, Constit.[8] p. XLVIII.

He behaved most rudely.

Relative and Absolute Superlative

1551. The plain superlatives in *-est* (and the irregular forms) are sometimes used to express a very high degree rather than the highest degree.

1552. Both forms of the superlative often express a very high degree when they are followed by an *of*-adjunct containing a noun without an article.

His love of order made him always the most regular of men. Ward, Dickens, ch. 4.

In personal appearance Ethelbert Stanhope was the most singular of beings. Trollope, Barchester ch. 9.

Mr. Balfour addressed Congress on Saturday and had the warmest of receptions. Times W. 11/5, '17.

Mr. Carnaby was the first to come back, and not in the best of tempers. Sweet, Element. p. 95.

1553. The result of the absence of comparison has been that the noun in the adjunct is often used in the singular (*a*). The construction is also used with nouns that cannot take a plural form (*b*).

a. The strikers were evidently not in the best of humour. Times W. 6/9, '18.

We have invariably met with the politest of reception. Webb, Local Government, p. XIV.

Mr. Harold Pemberton has fully succeeded in his object, which was "To lay bare in the simplest of language that side of a motor-car's life which should not remain a secret to the owner-driver." Daily Mail, 9/8, 23.

b. It is the best of news that General Smuts is to come to the Imperial War Conference as the representative of South Africa. Times W. 19/1, '17.

Mary added a tart, some excellent cheese, and the best of coffee. Vachell, Brothers II, ch. 5, p. 59.

We began to pass increasing numbers of people, walking slowly, taking the gentlest of exercise before their evening meal. Eliz. in Rügen.

You are not in the best of health just now, I fear, Mr. Foley. Oppenheim, People's Man ch, 3 p. 28.

And if we still hold that the Pauline theology grew in the main out of his experience, we are, as M. Loisy will admit, in the best of company. Times Lit. 25/12, '19.

1554. When the noun in the *of*-adjunct is plural it is often a matter of indifference whether the superlative is understood as a relative or as an absolute superlative.

Thus he was perfectly rational, though when others beheld him he appeared the insanest of mortals.
Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 6 p. 61.

This most extraordinary man (viz. Bishop Berkeley) succeeded for a time in communicating something of his own spirit to some of the most selfish of politicians.
Lecky, Hist. Engl. 18th Cent. I, p. 499.

He has attempted an interpretation of the work and personality of that most baffling and original of modern authors, Mr. H. G. Wells. Fisher Unwin's M. A. B. June, 1915.

Frequent lapses at critical moments into that most tiresome of devices, the narrative present tense. Times Lit. 8/7, '15.

1555. Sometimes the meaning is distinctly that of a relative superlative.

Upon one of the greatest of questions upon which men must always ponder, there is still much to be profitably said.
Times Lit. 30/11, '15.

1556. The meaning is always that of a relative superlative when the plural noun in the *of*-adjunct is preceded by the article or by *all*.

The Lord's birth is the most joyous and universal of the festivals of Christianity, the most beautiful of Christian stories [1]), the most gracious and human of the subjects of Christian art. Times Lit. 23/12, '15.

They are a compendium of close, reasoned, and instructed thought upon the most pressing of the questions which will be upon us when the tyrant pressure of the war is relaxed.
Times W. 5/1, '17.

Oh, yes, certainly; I am the most vulgar of all wretches in that respect. Trollope, Framley ch. 29, p. 282.

1) Note the absence of the article here.

1557. The superlative of adjectives used as nouns in an *of*-adjunct often expresses a very high degree.

Their map was of the vaguest. Times Lit. 11/3, '20.

I consider your expression of the least ceremonious.
Brontë, Villette ch. 2.

At all times her dress was of the poorest.
Peard, Madame p. 28.

Mr. Edward Hutton, the historian of Ravenna, finds in these same matters an allegory of the plainest.
Times Lit. 9/9, '15.

Compare the attributive superlative with the same meaning in the following quotation.

Humphrey's ideas of time were always of the vaguest order.
Montgomery, Misunderstood, ch. 3.

1558. The superlative in *-est* has the meaning of an absolute superlative if it is preceded by an indefinite pronoun, or by no qualifier at all.

Let any plainest man who reads this think of his usual mode of getting himself into his matutinal garments ...
Trollope, Framley ch. 44 p. 140.

No smallest estimate of his character is fair which does not make due allowance for the terrible experiences of his youth and middle age. Conan Doyle, Magic Door p. 58.

There is no smallest doubt that the air needs clearing, so far as Ireland is concerned. Times W. 26/10, '17.

It was perhaps on some darkest, muddiest afternoon of a London February. Times Lit. 6/9, '18.

Michael could scarcely bear to speak, so completely did it fulfil every faintest hope. Sinister Street p. 87.

She did listen, and watch, when evening closed; but it was in stillest sort: walking the drawing-room with quite noiseless step. Brontë, Villette ch. 25.

Michael and Guy left Oxford in the mellow time of an afternoon in earliest August. Sinister Street p. 760.

1559. The superlative in *-est* sometimes expresses a very high degree when the noun is preceded by the definite article.

> When I was eighteen years of age and had just left Westminster School, I valued a man according to his proficiency and taste in classical literature, and had the meanest opinion of all other accomplishments unaccompanied by that.
>
> Westminster School.

> He went slowly (viz. on his bicycle) with many road-side halts, nor was there the gentlest rise up which he did not walk. Sinister Street p. 827.

> Before saying anything more as to the existing authorities, it will be well to give the reader the briefest sketch of the history of our great city. Odgers, Local Government p. 215.

1560. When a definite article precedes there is often a difficulty in deciding whether we have an obsolute or a relative superlative.

In the following examples the superlative approaches the meaning of an absolute superlative; it is probably for this reason that the form with *most* is used.

> The most severe critic would find it difficult to catch Dr. Gairdner tripping on his own ground. Athenaeum.

> It was through his initiative, when he was only twenty-five years of age, that the Kent penitentiary was founded, and for fifty years he took the most keen interest in it, and was looking forward to presiding at its jubilee this year.
>
> Life of Pusey.

1561. Sometimes the superlative in *-est* seems to be used to prevent it being taken as an absolute superlative.

> We cannot, of course, either describe or criticize these essays in detail. But we may indicate those which are most important and freshest. Athenaeum.

1562. On the use of the article before the predicative superlative, see 1236 ff.

1563. Before *of*-adjuncts the superlative seems to take the form in *-est* even when the balance of the phrase might suggest the other form.

He found the bishop in the most placid and gentlest of humours. Trollope, Barchester.

Style, the Latin name for an iron pen... By a figure, obvious enough, which yet might serve for an epitome of literary method, the most rigid and simplest of instruments, has lent its name to the subtlest and most flexible of arts. Raleigh, Style.

Comparative and Superlative

1564. In expressing the higher degree of a quality in one out of two persons or things the superlative is usual in spoken English (*a*); in writing the comparative is often preferred (*b*).

a. There are two roads. I wonder which is the shortest. Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 35.

b. Both of the common English owls deserve strict protection, but the white or barn owl is the more useful of the two. Times W. 20/4, '17.

These five or six have also blue eyes, whereas among the Rassendylls dark eyes are the commoner. Hope, Zenda.

In Kipling's *Plain Tales* (False Dawn) we find both *the elder Miss Copleigh* and *the eldest Miss Copleigh*.

DERIVATION

Suffixes

1565. Introductory note. In the following sections *living* suffixes only will be mentioned, i. e. suffixes felt as such by the speakers of present-day English. An outward sign of a suffix being a living suffix is its productiveness; for this reason new-formations, even if nonce-words, will be specially mentioned. The treatment of *dead* or *unproductive* suffixes is the province of historical grammar. It is naturally difficult to draw the line between living and dead suffixes, but productiveness is the best criterion. Thus it is probable that educated speakers, even though unacquainted with the history of English, may feel something of the frequentative force of the ending *-le* in *prattle* (compare *prate*), *trample* (compare *tramp*), or *-er* as in *batter* (*beat*), *patter*, *stutter*, *stammer*. But we should not speak of modern frequentative suffixes *-le*, *-er*, because they are incapable of producing new words.

Suffixes to form nouns and adjectives are far more numerous than suffixes to form verbs. One reason is that nouns and adjectives can be freely used as verbs, whereas verbs are not so often converted into nouns. See the chapter on *Conversion*.

Verbs

-en **1566.** *-en* is added to adjectives, to form transitive and intransitive verbs:

darken 'to become dark, to make dark', *deepen*, *fasten*, *gladden*, *harden*, *madden*, *moisten*, *redden*, *sweeten*, *widen*, etc.

Nevertheless, the sight of Susan's face dampened his rejoicings. Vachell, Quinneys'.

This contact may be closened and completed.
Arnold Bennett, Eng. Rev., Oct. 1913.

1567. The ending is exceptionally added to a comparative: *worsen*; and occasionally to nouns: *lengthen, strengthen, frighten, heighten.*

While the outlook is very menacing, it did not worsen on Saturday. Daily News, 1912.

This was far from being the first time that Steve had worsened him in a trial of mere strength.
Patterson, Stephen Compton, p. 4.

Some adjectives are converted into verbs without an ending *to pale, to brown, to rough it*, etc. Sometimes both forms exist: *to dull, to dullen, to black, to blacken*: see *Conversion*, 1795.

-fy **1568.** *-fy* occurs in many verbs borrowed from Latin: *sanctify, pacify, edify*, etc.

It is freely added to adjectives and nouns, mostly with a somewhat jocular or trivial meaning, with the sense 'to make a specified thing', as in *speechify*; or 'to invest with certain attributes' as in *Frenchify*.

What a quantity of French words have I used! I suppose that the subject Frenchifies my style.

It is not a pleasant subject and Mr. Hodgson does not attempt to prettify it. Times Lit. 9/12, '15.

Forms like *speechify, Frenchify* may seem to show that the suffix is felt to be *-ify*, but it is chiefly, perhaps exclusively, used by those aware of the origin of the suffix. See 1572 on *-ana*.

-ize **1569.** *-ize* (also often spelt *-ise*) occurs in many verbs adopted from Greek:

1. with the transitive sense of 'make or conform to, or treat in the way of, the thing expressed by the word from which it is formed':

anathemize [1]), *cauterize* [2]), *characterize*, *diphthongize*, *symbolize* [3]), etc.

2. with an intransitive sense:

apologize [4]), *botanize*, *sympathize*, etc.

1570. In new-formations the transitive sense prevails:

to familiarize, *colonize*, *legalize*, *secularize* [5]), *particularize*, *jeopardize* [6]), *soberize;* also in verbs formed on proper names: *Americanize*, *Romanize*, and in *macadamize*, *mesmerize*, etc.

> Such reflections are soberizing to plain people.
>
> Brontë, Shirley ch. 7.
>
> The Universities should offer special facities and should circularize the endowed schools on the subject.
>
> Times Ed. 7/9, '15.

1571. In *pygmytize*, a new-formation from *pygmy*, a *t* has been inserted; compare 1613.

> War! Seven nations simultaneously battling for existence....; the combined armies of Ghengis Khan, Timur, Xerxes, Hannibal, Caesar, Saladin, and Napoleon pygmytized by contrast with the hostile hosts.... Times 21/8, 1914.

---

1) 'to pronounce a curse against, to excommunicate'.

2) 'to treat a wound or a diseased part by cautery, i.e. by burning the flesh with a hot iron, or by caustic medicine'.

3) 'to express by symbol' e.g. the letter *a* symbolizes the sounds [ei, æ, o, ɔ] etc., as in *take*, *hat*, *what*, *warm*, etc.

4) 'to make an apology i.e. an excuse, or a defence'.

5) 'to convert ecclesiastical property into secular'.

6) 'to expose to loss or injury, to endanger'.

Nouns

-ana **1572.** *-ana* [-einə, anə] is appended to proper names with the sense of 'notable sayings of, anecdotes of, notes about, or publications bearing upon a person':

Walpoliana, Shakespeariana, Burnsiana.

The suffix has also come to be used as a noun in the form *ana*, in spite of the invariable addition of *i* in derivations (see 1568 on *-fy*):

> To sweep ana and gossip out of biographies.

-dom **1573.** *-dom* is added to nouns and adjectives. It expresses

1. rank, and also more generally condition: *dukedom, earldom, martyrdom, freedom, wisdom;* and in nonce-words[1]):

> He had not as yet struck the path that leads unto millionairedom.
>
> All are followers of the Prophet, and their social customs are consequently much the same as those of any other Mahommedan race, though with a good admixture of savagedom. Patterson, Man-Eaters.
>
> Mr. Churchill's speech has reduced the German press to a condition of puzzledom, in which they ask what has happened to call forth such a speech just now. Daily News, 1912.

2. domain, realm: *kingdom, Christendom, heathendom.*

3. a group of persons collectively, in a disparaging sense: *parsondom* (Trollope, Framley ch. 14), *schoolmasterdom, villadom, officialdom.*

> It could scarcely be denied that the Schoolmasterdom of England was a priestcraft as powerful and arrogant as any which had ever been. Sinister Street p. 743.

---

1) Nonce-words are words which are coined by a speaker, or writer, for the nonce i.e. to serve the purpose of the moment; but which are not part of the regular vocabulary of any speaker of the language.

Villadom for the most part eschews piety of the early rising kind, and looks with an indulgent contempt on the few whose inconvenient form of devotion takes them from home at 7.45 on a Sunday morning. Pilot, 28/9, 1901.

1574. In the following sentence *Germandom* and *Slavdom* are probably adaptations of German words (*Germanentum*, *Slaventum*).

Early this month the German Chancellor himself alluded ominously to the imminence of a decisive conflict between Germandom and Slavdom. Times 7/8, 1914.

-ful **1575.** *-ful* is added to nouns to express 'a quantity that fills, or would fill':

handful, *mouthful*, *bottleful*, *canful*, *spoonful*, *bookful*, *houseful*, etc. Compare 1632.

-hood **1576.** *-hood* is added to adjectives and nouns to form nouns expressing

1. condition or state:

falsehood, *hardihood*, *likelihood*, *neighbourhood*, *childhood*, *maidenhood*, *widowhood*, *manhood*.

The British Empire to-day in a galaxy of young nations, active, enterprising, ardent. They must realize that nationhood carries with it more of duty than the colonial state. Times W. 9/5, 1913.

The secret of the Navy is to be found in the manhood — the seamanhood — of the race. Times Lit. 2/8, '18.

Stories which their mothers thought suitable for their years of flapperhood. ib. 16/6, '21.

But even she, with all her excellent simplicity, did not divine his victimhood. Bennett, Clayhanger II ch. 18 § 1.

2. persons or things (often collective): *priesthood*, *manhood*.

-ing **1577.** *-ing* is used to form nouns from verbs, less often from nouns. When the meaning is abstract those

formed from verbs are mostly gerunds (425 ff.). But many nouns in *-ing* have a concrete meaning, e.g. *writing* in 'the paper was covered with writing'; *binding* in 'the binding of this book is very artistic'; also *blacking*, *dripping*, etc.

1578. Several nouns in *-ing* denote the substance or material employed in an action or process as *gilding*, *lining*, *shirting*, *trimming*, etc.

Some of these nouns can also be used in the plural form with a plural meaning: *wedding*, *meeting*, *sitting*, *outing*, *being*, *covering* etc.

1579. The following have a collective meaning: *rigging*, *bedding*, *shipping*. In some nouns the plural form is used to denote the collective meaning: *earnings*, *leavings*, *filings*, *shavings*, *sweepings*, *hangings*, *trappings*, etc.

-ism **1580.** *-ism* is added to adjectives and nouns, mostly of foreign origin, to form nouns expressing

1. action, conduct, or condition:
heroism, *patriotism*, *despotism*, *barbrism*, *orphanism*, *parallelism*, *pauperism*.

2. the name of a system of theory or practice, religious, philosophical, political, etc.:
Arianism, *Catholicism*, *Calvinism*, *Protestantism*, *Puritanism*, *Ritualism*; *Platonism*; *liberalism*, *Toryism*, *Whiggism*, *conservatism*, *atheism*, *agnosticism*, *deism*; *imperialism*, *jingoism*; *feudalism*; *Face to Face with Kaiserism*, by Ambassador Gerard, 1918.

3. a peculiarity or characteristic, especially of language: *Americanism*, *Anglicism*, *Gallicism*, *Hebraism*, *Scotticism*; *archaism*, *modernism*, *provincialism*, *purism*, *sophism*.

There, economy was always "elegant," and money-spending

always "vulgar and ostentatious"; a sort of sour-grapeism which made us very peaceful and satisfied.

Mrs. Gaskell, Cranford.

Who can wonder that amid all these incessant labours .... he found even his indefatigable spirit reduced to a state of "nogoism" and "used-up-ed-ness"? Athenaeum, 10/2, 1912.

Love of country is something inexpressive never to be directly intended, much less to be anatomized in terms of 'ics and 'isms. Times Lit. 4/5, 1917.

-itis **1581.** *-itis* is added to nouns to denote diseases, as *appendicitis, bronchitis, tonsilitis*, etc.; also in humorous nonce-words, such as *allotmentitis* (English Studies IV, 1).

A neighbourhood suffering from chronic Puritanitis.

A. Kenealy, Thus Saith Mrs. Grundy.

... for like most consuls of the Levant service, Eneas Grant ..., had retired with that disease of the mental outlook which is known as consulitis.

Mackenzie, Rich Relatives ch. 5 p. 126.

-ment **1582.** *-ment* is found in many nouns adopted from French, and in new words formed in English itself. The nouns in *-ment* express

1. action:

abridgement (also spelt *abridgment*), *accomplishment, acknowledgement, argument, commencement, employment, treatment*, etc.

2. the means or instrument of the action:

ornament, pavement.

1583. Many of these words are formed from verbs with the prefixes *en-*, and *be-*:

embankment, embodiment, enlightenment, entanglement, bereavement.

-ness **1584.** *-ness* may be added to any adjective or past participle to form nouns expressing state or condition: *bitter-*

ness, goodness, kindness, darkness, hardness, sweetness, cleanness, companiableness; wickedness, fixedness, etc.

1585. They are also formed from compound adjectives, and occasionally from word-groups: *self-conceitedness, kind-heartedness, watertightness; up-to-dateness,* and in nonce-words.

> An irreproachable state of clean-shirtedness, navy blue broad-clothedness and chimneypot-hattedness.
>
> The desert is a new and strange place by night. One is always the centre of a circle of sandy nothingness, which one never crosses, because it always advances with one.
>
> Times Lit. 16/11, 1917.

1586. Nouns in *-ness* are naturally only formed when they are wanted. Hence adjectives that have a corresponding noun usually do not form them: *possible — possibility, probable — probability, mediocre — mediocrity.*

1587. But we find both *incorrigibleness* and *incorrigibility, courteousness — courtesy, divineness — divinity,* etc.; the form with *-ness* is preferred in this case because the original noun does not clearly enough denote the action or condition in the abstract.

> It showed her deep knowledge of her poorness in laying bare the fact. Meredith, Amazing Marriage, ch. 6 (p. 69).

1588. Note that the participles in these derivations with *-ness* end in [-ĭd], or [d,t], according to 1649: [ĭd] in *involved-ness, fixedness, preparedness, embarrassedness;* nouns formed from adjectives in *-n* have a double [n], see *English Sounds,* ch. 4 (*Syllable Division*).

-ry, -ery **1589.** *-ry* is added to nouns, less often to adjectives, to form nouns denoting

1. action or condition:
bigotry [1]), *pedantry* [2]), *rivalry*.

2. occupation, trade, etc.:
casuistry, *dentistry*, *chemistry*, *heraldry*.

> It was at this time, or rather in the civil wars which led to it, that the full wedding was made between balladry and journalism. Times Lit. 21/2, '24.

3. collectivity:
jewelry, *infantry*, *peasantry*, *tenantry*, *yeomanry*, *Englishry* [3]), *Irishry*, *Jewry*, *parsonry*, *valetry* [4]).

> The column of cavalry and camelry has soon followed up its Christmas victory at Magdhaba by making a rapid night march to Rafa. Times W. 19/1, 1917.
>
> Sir Charles Firth in numerous papers, which we should be glad to see collected has sketched the history of Tudor and Stuart balladry. Times Lit. 21/2, '24.
>
> Not Constance's specially provided napkins could hide that wealth and profusion of white lace and stitchery.
> Bennett, Old W. T. II ch. 3 § 2.

1590. In words like *bakery*, *brewery* the suffix might be taken to be [-əri̯]. This fuller suffix is used in words of one syllable:
knavery, *slavery*, *popery*, *archery*, *dupery*, *vinery*, *foolery*, *scenery*, *gullery* [5]).

1591. The suffix [-əri̯] also occurs in nonce-words. In the slang of undergraduates (Sinister Street p. 740), men are *Good*

---

1) 'blind zeal in favour of a particular religious belief'.

2) 'a vain and offensive display of knowledge'.

3) In historial use for 'the part of the population that is of English descent', especially in Ireland.

4) 'Servants'. It occurs in Meredith, Amazing Marriage, ch. 2, p. 17.

5) place where gulls breed.

Eggs or *Bad Men;* hence the collectives *Good Eggery* and *Bad Mannery:*

> St. Mary's, that most securely woven and most intimate nest of Good Eggery.

Compare also:

> I drove him to the "Dukeries," so called because at one time there was a conjunction of four ducal homes [1]).
>
> Dean Hole, Memories p. 27.
>
> Moreover, these books are thoroughly English, with an Englishry of which there is nothing to be ashamed before the cultivated world. Times Lit. 17/3, '21.

1592. Note *heronry* [herənrĭ] 'a place where herons breed'. The word varies with [həənərĭ] from the noun [həən], often spelt *hern* accordingly, by means of the suffix [-ərĭ]; see 1590.

-ship **1593.** *-ship* is added to nouns, and occasionally to adjectives and verbs, to form abstract nouns: *ownership, relationship, friendship, horsemanship; hardship, courtship,* etc.

1594. In some words it denotes rank or dignity: *lordship, governorship, mastership, secretaryship,* etc. Both meanings are represented by *scholarship:*
1. abstract: The book shows the author's scholarship.
2. dignity, etc.: He has gained a scholarship, worth £ 80.

Personal Names

-ee **1595.** The suffix *-ee* is used to denote a person who is the 'indirect object' of the verb from which the word is formed: *lessee* 'person to whom a property is let'; *vendee* 'person to whom a sale is made'; *indorsee* 'person in whose

---

1) On the anology of *rookery.*

favour a draft, etc. is indorsed' *payee* 'person who is entitled to be paid (no matter whether he be actually paid or not)'. In a few cases the suffix has been added not to a verb-stem, as in the examples above, but to a Latin participial stem related to an English noun: *legatee* 'person to whom a *legacy* has been bequeathed'.

1596. The suffix is principally used to form law-terms. Occasionally, however, it is found in familiar words, as in *addressee, employee, examinee* (active: *addresser* [1]), *employer, examiner*); and chiefly in humorous nonce-words, as *educatee, laughee, sendee* 'person who is educated, laughed at, to whom something is sent'. Compare also:

> The peculiar relation of biographer and biographee.
> Austin Dobson, Cyclop. of Eng. Lit. II, 10.
>
> Passing on he detailed how the publisher and publishee had taken passages in the same vessel.
> R. Haggard, Mr. Meeson's Will ch. 20.
>
> I would also premise
> That the term of Pass-ee
> Most fitly applies,
> As you probably see,
> To one whose vocation is passing
> The 'ordinary B. A. degree'.
> The Heathen Pass-ee, [2]) being the Story of a Pass-examination. By Bred Hard.

1597. As an ending in law-terms it is felt as a contrast to the suffix *-or* (1614), which forms the corresponding agent-nouns. But some of the nouns in *-ee* have no active word

---

1) Also *addressor*: The addressor and the addressee are "poles asunder." Athenaeum, 10/8, 1912.

2) An allusion to *Parsee* [pɑ'si] 'a descendant of those Persians who fled to India in the seventh and eighth centuries to escape Mohammedan persecution, and who still retain their religion'. The poem is a parody on a poem by Bret Harte.

corresponding to them, such as *patentee, referee, trustee.* The passive meaning is less prominent in this case, and in some words the meaning is entirely intransitive, as in *absentee, devotee.*

-eer **1598.** *-eer* is an anglicized form of the French suffix *-ier.* Where the noun from which the French word was formed never became familiar in English use, the original spelling *-ier* is retained, as in *bombardier, cavalier, grenadier;* also *cuirassier, gondolier* (although *cuirass, gondola* are pretty well known). In imitation of these words the suffix *-eer* has been added to English nouns, as *auctioneer, charioteer, mountaineer, pamphleteer, profiteer.*

-er, -or, -ar **1599.** *-er* (*-or, -ar*), all spellings for [ər], is added to verbal stems to form names of agents: *binder, caterer, hunter, liar, beggar, inspector, originator, sailor, bystander, passer-by;* both *conjurer* and *conjuror.* It is also found in nonce-words:

> Rome was now head of the Italian land, unifier and protector of its peoples.
>
> Goodspeed, Hist. of the Ancient World.
>
> Those seemingly artless methods captivated the "think-it-overs" and the "rather nicers," who frequent curiosity shops in ever increasing numbers. Vachell, Quinneys'.
>
> Now the defender is only victorious when he wins at all points....; whereas the attacker wins if he gains the upper hand in a single spot. A. Harrison, Eng. Rev. Jan. '15.
>
> She stood half-way up the ladder, looking at a spot into which she was not climber enough to venture.
>
> Hardy, Return of the Native II ch. 2.
>
> "I'm a goner [1])," he thought. Vachell, Spragge p. 8.
>
> "She's a oner," said Crayford.
>
> Hichens, Way of Ambition ch. 28.

1) i.e. I am lost.

Michael, Grainger and Lonsdale decided to drown woe by a triple Twenty-firster [1]). Sinister Street p. 744.

I'm jolly glad that I'm a twen-center (i.e. one born in the twentieth century). Vachell, Quinneys', p. 151.

1600. The agent-nouns in *-er* normally denote personal agents, both male and female, as in *singer*, *teacher;* sometimes male only, as in *sailor* [2]), *beggar* [3]); or female only, as in *housekeeper*, *dressmaker* (but see p. 94 first sentence. See 1608 on *-ess*. But many of them denote material agents, hence also instruments, as *blotter*, *poker*, *roller*, *a two-seater* [4]), *a single-seater* [4]), etc.

A thunderstorm went by to the north and flicked its wing over the island, and in the night there came a drencher and a howling wind slap over us. Wells, Country of the Blind p. 79.

1601. *-er* is also added to geographical names to denote the inhabitants or natives, e. g. *Londoner*, *New Yorker*, *Icelander;* also *Little Englander*. Similarly it is added to adjectives, as in *foreigner*, *northerner*, *southerner*.

We have a double suffix, *-erer*, in *fruiterer*.

1602. The ending *-er* is so strongly felt as a living suffix that it is even supposed to exist where the suffix is different. Thus *poetaster* has been taken for a derivation with *-er*, so that *poetasting* could be formed. We even find the verb *muth* as a back-formation from *mother*.

To every fellow-poetasting swanker.

G. Frankau, One of Us, first line.

"I am the mother and I muth [5])," said Dolly.

Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 2 § 3.

---

1) a dinner in honour of their coming of age.

2) But: Are you a good sailor, Miss James?

3) For the female: *beggarwoman*. But compare Tennyson (*Enoch Arden*): And her, he loved, a beggar.

4) Of aeroplanes and motor cars.

5) The context shows that it means 'to act as a mother.'

1603. The meaning of the suffix is not felt in *retainer*, used in its historical sense of 'a dependent or follower of a person of rank'. In this sense the suffix has rather a passive meaning: *retainer* is 'a person retained or kept by a lord'. But from the verb *to retain* is also derived a noun denoting the agent, as appears from the following quotations:

> Limestone soils are bad retainers of water.
>
> The arbitrator is to impose what conditions he thinks fit on the retainer of the enclosures.

1604. Note also the various meanings of *confessor:*

> 1. one who makes confession, or public acknowledgement of anything, especially one who avows his religion in times of persecution.
>
> 2. a priest who hears confessions, prescribes penance and grants absolution [1]).

-ess **1605.** *-ess* is used to denote female persons. It is added to the names of male persons:

priestess, countess, heiress, princess, peeress, hostess, Jewess, shepherdess, stewardess, etc. Also in nonce-words:

> A millionairess.
>
> Will no one rid me of this troublesome prelatess?
>
> A most respected fellow-citizeness.
>
> Eng. Rev. Oct. 1913, p. 406.

Note *mayoress* 'wife of a mayor', or, in the case of an unmarried or widowed mayor, 'the lady who fulfils the ceremonial duties normally belonging to the mayor's wife'.

1606. In the following words we have no English derivations but loanwords from French.

---

1) Among Roman Catholics (not among members of the English Church) the word is stressed on the first syllable in this meaning.

duke — duchess abbot — abbess
marquis, marquess } marchioness negro — negress
master — mistress; cp. Mr. [mìstər]; Mrs. [mìsĭz].

1607. The ending of the name for the male is sometimes lost:

murderer — murderess adventurer — adventuress
emperor — empress governor — governess [1]).

1608. The suffix is also added to names of persons denoting either sex:

authoress, poetess.

In this case the longer word is generally used only when it is necessary to denote the sex.

> Shoals of young Jewish tailors and tailoresses stream in from the East and fill the Italian *cafés.*
>
> Everyman, 28/2, 1913.

1609. *-ess* occurs in three names of female animals: *lioness, tigress, leopardess.*

1610. Nouns in [tər, dər] drop the vowel of this suffix, so that the feminine words end in [trĭs, -drĭs]. Compare *noble, nobler*: 1487.

actor [æktər] — *actress* [æktrĭs], *proprietor — proprietress; waiter — waitress; protector — protectress; warder — wardress.*

-ist **1611.** *-ist* forms agent-nouns, mostly denoting persons practising some art, method or trade, or studying some science, etc.; also the adherents of a creed, or doctrine: *archaeologist, zoologist, monopolist, novelist; opportunist, altruist, atheist, deist, ritualist, royalist, imperialist, socialist, collectivist,* etc.

---

1) Thus in Margaret, governess of the Netherlands. In this meaning it is naturally obsolete. The noun denoting the male corresponding to *governess* 'teacher in a private household' is *tutor.*

But as things were he must rest content as the greatest genre painter, one of the greatest landscapists, and the noblest designer of the Flemish School. Times Lit. 12/1, '22.

1612. In some cases the form in *-ist* approaches closely to the agent-noun in *-er*, being distinguished from it only by the more professional or systematic sense which it implies: compare *conformer — conformist; copier — copyist; cycler — cyclist.*

1613. Note the addition of an *n* in *tobacconist*; of *t* in *dramatist, egotist, scientist.*

-ite **1614.** *-ite* forms nouns denoting:

1. persons. These nouns are mostly somewhat contemptuous (the contempt is often of a good-natured kind): *Claphamite, Luddite, Parnellite, Pre-Raphaelite.* Formations from other than proper names occur occasionally.

This child, together with his fellows, used to wear a blue cap adorned with a band of gold braid and a patriotic emblem. It had a midshipmite air and was a romantic and glorious cap for which a small English boy would sell his soul.
Times W. 18/1, 18.

2. scientific ideas: *graphite, melampyrite, cordite, nitrite.*

-or **1615.** *-or* [ɔər] occurs exclusively in law-terms to denote the person who takes an active share in an action or agreement (the passive party being denoted by the ending *-ee*, see 1596 f.). In many cases the nouns in *-or* and *-ee* are contrasted:

The lessee is bound to a multitude of things, and the lessor to little more than acceptance of the rent.

A mortgagor [1]), after default in payment of the mortgage

1) Note the pronunciation [mɔgĭ'džɔər] 'debtor who conveys his property to his creditor (the *mortgagee*) as security for the debt'.

debt, cannot make a valid lease of the lands without the concurrence of the mortgagee.

Another example is *grantor* 'person who makes a grant or conveyance in legal form'.

Note the stress of *committor* [ko'mitɔər] 'a judge (usually the Lord Chancellor) who commits a lunatic or idiot to the charge of another'; the latter is called the *committee* [komi'ti].

-ster **1616.** *-ster* is added to the stem of verbs (or nouns). to express 'given to the practice of', generally with a disparaging connotation, as in *gamester*, *rhymester*, *punster*, *trickster*.

You seem rather a dabster at figures.
Pett Ridge, Mord Em'ly, ch. 19.

In imitation of *youngster* we find the nonce-word *oldster*.

He (i.e. the man of thirty) perceives risks where the youth perceives only ecstacy, and the oldster only a blissful release from solitude. Bennett, Anna of the Five Towns ch. 10.

Diminutives

1617. English makes little use of diminutive endings. The only ones that are at all frequently used are *-ette*, *-ie* (*-y*), *-let*. None of them, however, are so freely used as diminutive endings are in some languages, such as Dutch and German.

-ette **1618.** The ending *-ette* is often used jocularly; the spelling *-et* shows that the stress is sometimes on the stem.

Bishop Walsham Howe, in his excellent sermonettes entitled *Plain Words*, ... explains .... Oxf. and Camb. Rev.

The Kaiser stopped to deliver a sermonette on the importance of the festival.

A miscellany of essays, appreciations, reviews, *j'n'sais quois*, reminiscential occasional articles and articlettes. Punch.

(Clubland)
Hearkened what time one vicious widowette
Gave tongue.... G. Frankau, One of Us XII, 9.

The Warden of the college is nicknamed Pumpkin-head. Hence his daughter is *the Pumpkinette*. Sinister Street p. 689.

The most perfect of rock-gardens, a natural conjunction of mountainettes and streamlets. Hole, Mem. p. 238.

Her grandfather had returned, and was busily engaged in pouring some gallons of newly arrived rum into the square bottles of his square cellaret.
Hardy, Return of the Native I ch, 11.

It is also used to denote imitation-materials, as in *flannelette, cashmerette, leatherette.*

-ie, -y **1619.** The ending *-ie, -y* is specially added to personal and animal names: *Johnny, Anny, Cooky; piggy; lassie, doggie, leggie*, etc.

The ending is especially used in Scotch; hence also the Scotch spelling *-ie* for English *-y*. In Southern English the common nouns with the ending are all but confined to the nursery, as in *hanky* 'handkerchief'; thus also the adjectives, such as *comfy* 'comfortable'; see the sections on *Shortening*. The proper names are more generally used.

-let **1620.** *-let* is added to all kinds of nouns: *booklet, brooklet, courtlet, crownlet, dukelet, hoodlet, yokelet, keylet, ringlet*, [1]), *rootlet, streamlet.* In many of these words the suffix expresses contempt.

Come, you are neither of you going to heaven yet. I have the best hopes of you both, with your proud distinctions — a pair of half-fledged eaglets [2]). Brontë, Shirley, ch. 28.

---

1) Note the differentiation in the meaning of *ringlet.*

2) I consider *eaglet* as an example of a word with the suffix *-let*, because the unstressed diminutive suffix *-et* is very rare (1618). The same applies to *islet, owlet.*

Essex possesses a few small spires and spirelets which are lead-coloured. Athenaeum.

The Balkan Kinglets. F. Harrison, Engl. Rev., Jan. 1913.

-ling **1621.** *-ling* occurs in some words denoting the young of animals:

duckling, *gosling*, *nestling*.

It also forms designations of persons with a contemptuous or unfavourable sense:

lordling, *kingling*, *princeling*, *squireling*, *hireling*, *underling* [1]).

Then Mr. Daubeny (viz. a Prime Minister) for twelve months had sat upon the throne distributing the good things of the Crown amidst Conservative birdlings, with beaks wide open and craving maws, who certainly for some years previous had not received their share of State honours or State emoluments. Trollope.

To be "put up", even temporarily, at the abode of such a tribe of heavenlings [2]) did not seem to add to Calcutta's enticement. Daily News.

It should be noted that *-ling* never expresses mere smallness of size, and is less of a genuine diminutive suffix than the others.

Adjectives

-able **1622.** *-able* (sometimes spelt *ible*) is added to verbs to form adjectives expressing 'able or fit to undergo an action': *adorable, unforgettable, readable, eatable, noticeable; discernible*, etc.

---

1) Note that the last two are not formed from nouns.

2) i.e. a hotel of the Y. M. C. A.

Mr. Dosson, it may further be mentioned, was a man of the simplest composition, a character as cipherable as a sum of two figures. Henry James, Reverberator.

There was this difference, however, between Roger Bacon and his fellow-giants of the time, Albertus Magnus and St. Thomas Aquinas, whom he estimated with such understandable, if wrongheaded injustice. Times Lit. 11/6, '14.

And you can't snub that sort of people; they're unsnubbable. Elizabeth p. 132.

This is an attempt to teach an almost unteachable subject. Pilot, 26/10, 1901.

1623. Some words in *-able* are not real English derivations, but have been borrowed from French. This is sometimes shown by their having a different stress from the corresponding verb:

'admirable but *to ad'mire.*
'comparable but *to com'pare.*
'preferable but *to pre'fer.*
'revocable but *to re'voke,* etc.
See further *English Sounds,* ch. 4 (*Stress*).

1624. In derivations from nouns the suffix suggests 'having', or 'giving': *personable, comfortable.*

He could be trusted to drive cattle slowly; he was knowledgable about colts. Vachell, Spragge p. 11.

-ed **1625.** *-ed* is added to nouns to express the sense 'possessing, provided with, characterized by':

booted, spurred, moneyed, worded, cultured, talented, diseased; also in many compound adjectives: *dark-eyed, big-headed, broad-chested, soberly-conducted (people), a well-foliaged tree* (Ill. London News, 5/8, 1916). See 1649 and 1658.

Derivations with this suffix from verbs are generally looked upon as participles; see 581 ff. It has already been pointed out that the verbal character of participles is often shown by

the nature of the adjunct: *much* (not *very*), *too much* (not *too*); see 585. The adjunct shows the adjectival character of the form in the following quotations.

> He was too occupied with all he saw to be afraid of the horses. Temple Thurston, Thirteen I.
>
> Our very limited space makes it impossible to accept your contribution.

In the same way adjectives derived with *-ing* from verbs are called participles. The deverbatives in *-able* are not so purely verbal; but see *Word-order* as to their place after nouns. Adjectives formed from verbs must be called participles when they share verbal peculiarities, such as voice, tense, or construction (e.g. when they take an object).

-erly, -ern **1626.** *-erly* and *-ern* are added to names of the points of the compass to form adjectives expressing direction or position:

> A northerly wind (from the North).
> The Thames has an easterly course (towards the East).
> The northern part of Holland.
> Of these Devonshire capes, Start Point is the most easterly.

-ese **1627.** *-ese* is used to form adjectives from names of countries or places:

Chinese, Portuguese, Japanese, Maltese; Milanese, Viennese, Pekinese.

It is never added to names of English towns (see 1601 on *-er*).

1628. The adjectives in *-ese* are also used as nouns, both to denote the language and the inhabitants. When denoting the latter they have no plural ending, according to the rule for converted adjectives.

1629. The suffix *-ese* is also used in nonce-words to denote the language or style of an author (or newspaper):

Johnsonese 'a pompous and long-winded style resembling Samuel Johnson's', *Carlylese, journalese, Daily Telegraphese,* as in the following quotation:

> Macaulay is only interesting as the inventor of Daily Telegraphese. Academy, 9/11, 1907.

In this case the sense is always depreciatory (see 1633 on *-ian*):

> It would be easy to select from Johnson's writings numerous passages written in that essentially vicious style to which the name Johnsonese has been c r u e l l y given; but the searcher could not fail to find many passages guiltless of this charge.
>
> He is probably justified in making greater use than in the Theocritus version, of the language of poetical "translationese." Classical Rev. vol. 28 p. 98/1.

-esque **1630.** The ending *-esque* is chiefly used in jocular nonce-words as in *cigaresque.*

> There is something quite Carsonesque about that. Daily News, 1912.

The suffix is also used to form adjectives from names of artists, as *Turneresque, Claudesque.*

-fold **1631.** *-fold* forms adjectives from cardinal numerals: *twofold, a hundredfold, manifold,* etc.

-ful **1632.** *-ful* is added to nouns to form adjectives expressing 'full of, characterized by':

artful, careful, fruitful, sinful, sorrowful, beautiful, graceful, etc.

A few words are derived from verbs: *mournful, distractful.* Compare 1575.

-ian **1633.** *-ian* forms adjectives from proper names of persons: *Addisonian, Arminian, Bodleian, Gladstonian, Johnsonian*

(cp. *Johnsonese*, 1629) *Taylorian, Tennysonian;* or of places: *Bostonian, Oxonian, Parisian, Venetian.*

> Surgery has two periods — the pre-Listerian, and the post-Listerian. Death of Lord Lister, Daily News.
>
> She has been reading Maeterlinck's charmingly Maeterlinckian pages on Emily Brontë. Athenaeum.

-ic **1634.** Most English adjectives ending in *-ic,* are not English formations but borrowings from Latin or formed on Latin models.

There is also an English suffix *-ic,* however, as is shown by new-formations.

> Their feet got entangled in their aldermanic gowns. Daily News.
>
> There were names historic and names mushroomic; names that the Conqueror might have called in his muster-roll; names that had been, clearly, tossed into the upper stratum of civilized life by a mill-wheel or a merchantstool. Meredith, Ordeal Richard Feverel Ch. XVI.

-ine, in **1635.** *-ine, in* forms adjectives, some of which are also used as nouns. The suffix is [ain] *-ine* in many terms of Natural History (*feline, bovine*), and in others:

Caroline (e.g. *the Caroline Poets*, i.e. the poets in the time of Charles I.), *the Hildebrandine theory of the Church*, etc.

The suffix is [in] in the trade-names of many new varieties of fabrics, cosmetics, patent medicines, etc., e.g. *nectarine* (also -ĭn), *grenadine.*

Feminine personal names end in *-ine* [-ĭn]: *Caroline* (also -ain), *Catherine;* or [-in]: *Ernestine, Josephine.*

-ish **1636.** *-ish* forms adjectives

1. from names of nations:
British, Finnish, Swedish, Turkish, etc.

2. from common nouns with the sense 'of a person or thing, belonging to, of the nature or character of': *boyish, girlish.*

In most cases the words are used in a derogatory sense 'having the (bad or objectionable) qualities of':

amateurish, babyish, boorish, brutish, clownish, foolish, mannish, womanish (compare *manly, womanly:* 1639), etc.; also in *bookish, feverish, freakish,* etc.

1637. It is also added to adjectives, especially those denoting colour, with the sense 'of the nature of, approaching the quality of', e.g. *bluish, blackish, reddish, whitish,* etc.; also in *brightish, coldish, goodish, oldish, youngish.*

-less **1638.** *-less,* is added to nouns and verbs in the sense 'without, not to be -ed':

careless, hopeless, fearless, sleepless, useless; dauntless 'not to be daunted', *resistless* 'not to be resisted'.

It is very frequent in the formation of nonce-words, as in the following quotations:

> The grammarless teaching of a language is a slow and nebulous business. Times Ed. 8/8, 1918.
>
> Butcherless, bakerless, tailorless, cobblerless, doctorless, bookless, milkless, postless .... jungle. Athenaeum 12/12, 1885.

-ly **1639.** *ly* is added to nouns with the sense 'having the qualities appropriate to, characteristic of, befitting'. If the meaning of the noun allows it, the adjectives are usually eulogistic (compare *-ish,* 1636) e.g. *kingly, knightly, manly, womanly, masterly, princely, queenly, gentlemanly, scholarly, leisurely;* but compare also *beastly, beggarly, cowardly, dastardly.*

> For a new spirit was coming over the more churchly elements in our communion. Watson, Church of England p. 158.

The suffix also forms adjectives denoting periodic recurrence: *daily, hourly, monthly, nightly, weekly, yearly, quarterly, fortnightly.*

-some 1640. *-some* forms adjectives from nouns, adjectives, and verbs:

burdensome, troublesome, wholesome, wearisome, etc.

> The grey twilight of a dungeon, or other darksome apartment of the prison. Hawthorne, Scarlet Letter p. 66.
>
> With the humoursome gesticulation of a little imp. ib. p. 120.

-ward 1641. *-ward* forms adjectives expressing direction: *homeward, backward.*

These words are also used as adverbs, either with or without the addition of [z]:

forwards, backwards, etc.

-y 1642. *-y* is added to nouns to form adjectives with the sense 'of the nature of, characterized by': *gassy, glassy, earthy, pithy, noisy, fiery, clayey, gluey.*

> They had never seen anyone look so thunder and lightningy as that little June. Galsworthy, Man of Property, II ch. 2.
>
> We resent the panicky darkening of London [1]). Eng. Rev. Jan. '15.
>
> There is a fringe of suburbs from Croydon by Wallingford . . ., which begins to look very towny. Observer 15/5, 21.

1643. In imitation of the phrase *of the earth, earthy* we find expressions like the following.

> In May I am of the earth, earthy. Allen, Kentucky Cardinal, ch. 5.
>
> With her long eyes half shut, she looked typically of the world wordly, languid, almost prettily disdainful. Hichens, Ambition ch. 2.
>
> In this respect Mr. Dickens, as an actor, was amateurish, but it is only another way of saying that he was of the stage, stagey. Life of Ainger, p. 116.

1) For fear of German air-raids.

Ordinal Numerals

-eth **1644.** *-eth* [-ĭþ] is used to form ordinals from the cardinals ending in *-ty:*

twentieth [twentiĭþ], *thirtieth*, *fortieth*, *ninetieth*, etc.

-th **1645.** *-th* [þ] is used for the other definite numerals as in *fourth*, *sixth*, *seventh*, *tenth*, *hundredth*, *thousandth*.

Irregular (apart from *first*, *second*, and *third*) are *fifth* and *twelfth*.

1646. Ordinals are generally formed from the definite cardinal numbers only, and almost exclusively from those belonging to the decimal system (not from *gross*, *score*).

> A sallow prisoner has come up, in custody, for the half-dozenth time, to make a personal application.
>
> Dickens, Bleak House.

Note also the indefinite *n^{th}: for the n^{th} time; the n^{th} power of a is written a^n.*

Adverbs

-ly **1647.** *-ly* serves to form adverbs from adjectives: *hardly*, *sweetly*, *roughly*, *kindly*, etc.; also from participles: *lovingly*, *decidedly*, *hurriedly*, etc.

Derivations from nouns are rare: *partly*, *purposely*, *chiefly*, *instantly*.

The ending is also added to ordinal numerals to denote serial position, as in *firstly*, *secondly*, etc.

Changes of form **1648.** Adjectives in *-ic* never have an adverb in *-icly*, except *politicly* [1]), *publicly;* the adverb usually

---

1) Differing in meaning from *politically*.

> Such were the epithets which rose to Lady Arabella's mind; but she politicly suppressed them. Trollope, Dr. Thorne ch. 42.

ends in *ically: athletic — athletically; hypnotic — hypnotically.*
The adverb corresponding to *historic, historical* is therefore *historically; poetic(al) — poetically.*

1649. If *-ly* is added to adjectives and past participles in [-d, -t], the latter ending is pronounced [-ĭd] or [-d, -t], according to the stressing of the word from which it is formed. It is:

1. [ĭd] when the word ends in a stressed syllable: *designedly* [dĭzainĭdlĭ], *fixedly* [fĭksĭdlĭ], *involvedly* [ìn'volvĭdlĭ], *avowedly* [əvauĭdlĭ], etc.

2. [d,t] when the word ends in an unstressed syllable: *hurriedly* [hʌrĭdlĭ], *goodnaturedly* [gùd'neitšədlĭ], *determinedly* [dĭtəəmĭndlĭ]; *distinguishedly* [dĭstĭŋguĭštlĭ], *astonishedly* [əstonĭštlĭ], *embarrassedly* [em'bærəstlĭ], etc.

The rule for [ĭd] in these words can be more intelligibly stated thus: [ĭd] is used [1]) except where it would cause the stress to be further back than the third syllable. See 1588.

1650. Adjectives ending in syllabic *l* lose their final sound: [dʌbl, dʌblĭ]. The spelling is accordingly *double, doubly; incredible, incredibly.*

Note that this rule applies to syllabic *l* only; hence to words that have a consonant before *l*. Compare *vile, vilely; pale, palely,* etc.

> Inhabiting a world which might arguably develop from ours in a comparatively short space of time.
> J. C. Squire, Observer 11/3, 23.
> They are also made unbelievably stupid. ib.

1651. Some adjectives have no corresponding adverb in *-ly*. This is generally so with adjectives ending in *-ly*:

1) Or, speaking historically: has been retained.

earthly, godly, kindly, lively; stately, timely, etc. In such cases a periphrastic construction is mostly used; *in a kindly manner* etc.; or another word e.g. *earthly* and *terrestrially; stately* and *solemnly*, etc.

> As a rule, with practical good sense, she kept her doubting eyes fixed friendlily on every little phase in turn.
> Galsworthy, Fraternity, ch. 7.
> "I'll fetch Harrop," she said melancholily to his cousin.
> Old Wives' Tale II ch. 5 § 1.

But *early, leisurely, untimely*, the adjectives in *-ly* that denote periodical recurrence, as *hourly* (1639), and many other adjectives (*hard, fast close*, etc.), are used as adverbs without any change of form.

1652. There are other adjectives that do not form corresponding adverbs, e.g., *difficult, still, (un)afraid*. We can use *with difficulty, quietly*, and *fearfully* (*fearlessly*).

1653. *Possibly*, and *not impossibly* are used as adverbs of modality; *impossibly* is also used, without *not*, as an adverb of degree.

> It cannot possibly be true.
> To employ him for the prosecution meant that one was in strong evidence, perhaps injured, not impossibly respectable.
> J. O. Hobbes, Some Emotions Part II, p. 69.
> Kirsteen, what an impossibly Celtic name!
> Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 6.

1654. *Likely* when used as an adverb is generally preceded by a qualifying word: *He will most (very) likely come in time.* But: *Armistice Day has likely killed the Lord Mayor's show.* Times Lit. 18/8, '21.

Prefixes

1655. The formation of words by means of prefixes is far less popular than by means of suffixes. Nearly all the prefixes are of Romance origin (the exceptions are *be-*, *mis-*, *un-*), and most of them are restricted to the language of 'educated' speakers and writers.

ante- **1656.** *ante-* [1]) 'before' is especially used to form adjectives and attributive nouns (with the chief stress on the second element or with level stress); it refers to time and to order:

ante-baptismal, ante-historical; The Stone Age and the ante-metallic period; with Austria or ante-revolutionary France; ante-war lightness of national taxation.

In this sense *ante-* varies with *pre-;* see 1674.

-anti **1657.** *anti-* 'against' is used:

1. to form nouns expressing 'opposed, rival':

anti-king, anti-pope.

These words have the main stress on the prefix, owing to the contrast.

2. to form adjectives and attributive phrases, in which *anti-* prepositionally governs a noun expressed, as in *anti-slavery*, or implied in an adjective, as in *anti-national.*

The stress falls on the second element, or there is level stress.

> anti-Protestant book; anti-Semitic literature; anti-patriotic prejudices; the anti-poetic spirit of the age; the Anti-Corn-Law League; the Anti-Slavery Society; the Anti-Vaccination League; the Anti-Vivisection Society; the Anti-Budget League.

3. to form names of things or persons of the same form as the adjectives and attributive phrases mentioned under 2: *anti-popery, anti-slavery, anti-vivisection.*

---

1) *Ante-* and *anti-* differ in spelling only; the sounds intended are [æntĭ].

be- **1658.** *be-* forms transitive verbs. It is prefixed:

1. to nouns: *to benight*[1]), *befriend, beguile.*

It is specially used in adjectives with the suffix *-ed* (1625) to express 'covered or furnished with', usually in an unfavourable sense:

> The figure of the becassocked priest spoils all.
> Officers much be-medalled and much be-crossed.
> Never did a be-uniformed people more thoroughly believe in the dignity of dress.
> The inflation and be-puffing and be-advertising of nonentity is obviously a noble line of business.

2. to verbs: *bedaub, beset, besmear, besprinkle,* etc.

See also 1582.

co- **1659.** *co-* 'together, in company, equal(ly), reciprocally, mutually' forms verbs and nouns:

co-exist, co-operate, co-educate; co-author, co-tenant, co-heir, co-executor, co-trustee.

counter- **1660.** *counter-* 'against' may be prefixed to almost any noun expressing action, or any word to which action or incidence is imputed. In new-formations the stress is even; or the prefix has the stronger stress, especially when it has a contrasting stress, in *to plan and counter-plan, counter-cheers* (the contrasting *cheers* is implied).

> counter-attraction, counter-demonstration, counter-intrigue, counter-threat, counter-reformation, counter-revolution, counter-argument, counter-movement, counter-tide.

1661. In older formations verbs are usually stressed on the second element; nouns on the prefix:

---

1) Usually in the form *benighted,* as a participle, 'overtaken by the darkness': *The tourists were benighted in a forest;* or as an adjective: *Some benighted fisherman, he thought;* see 1625. Also 'involved in intellectual or moral darkness': *He was a benighted Moslem.*

verbs: *to counterbalance, to countermand, to countermine, to countervail, to counterweigh.*
nouns: *countermine.*
'counterfeit, 'countersign both as verbs and as nouns.

dis- **1662.** *dis-* is prefixed to English as well as to foreign words:
to disable, disagree, disconnect, disestablish, disown, disinherit, dislike, disbelieve, distrust; dishonour, disadvantage, discontent, disrespect, disrepute, distaste; dishonest, disagreeable, disconnected, disheartened, disinterested, disobedient, dissimilar.

ex- **1663.** *ex-* 'former, some time', prefixed to nouns designating persons with respect to their calling, station, character:
ex-professor, ex-secretary, ex-proprietor.

extra- **1664.** *extra-* 'outside':
extra-canonical (books), his extra-cathedral life, extra-metrical 'exceeding the number of feet or syllables proper to a metre', *extra-tropical regions.*

1665. Note that *extra* 'more than usual, additional' is not a prefix but an independent word used attributively in such groups as *extra work, extra pay* [1]).

hyper- **1666.** *hyper-*, 'over-much, excessively':
hyper-accurate, hyper-active, hyper-conscientious.

1667. For *in-* see 1682 ff.

inter- **1668.** *inter-* 'between, mutually':
intermarry, interweave, interact; interdependence; international.
Also in attributive words:
inter-school (matches), inter-university (boat-race, cricket-match), Interstate (Commerce Act).

1) Hence these words have no hyphen.

mal- **1669.** *mal-* 'ill, wrong, improper(ly)', is chiefly prefixed to nouns of action, but occasionally to adjectives and verbs:

maladministration, malobservation, malpractice, malversation; malodorous; to maltreat.

mis- **1670.** *mis-* 'bad(ly), wrong(ly)', is used to form:

1. verbs: *misaddress, misadvise, misconstrue, misgovern, mismanage, mispronounce, misrule, misunderstand, miswrite.*
2. nouns: *misconduct, misdemeanour, misdeed.*

non- **1671.** *non-* is freely used in new-formations:

non-admission, non-appearance, non-compliance, non-performance; non-communicant; non-essential.

In the older words the meaning of the prefix *non-* is not so clearly felt. In accordance with this some are written without a hyphen:

nonconformist, nonsense, nondescript.

It also explains the division into syllables of *nonentity:* [no-ˈnen-tĭ-tĭ]. See also 1682.

out-, over- **1672.** For examples of words with *out-, over-*, see *English Sounds.* We might justly speak of composition here, rather than of derivation.

> If only I had the skill, I would produce novels out-trashing the trashiest that ever sold fifty thousand copies.
>
> Gissing, New Grub Street ch. 1.

post- **1673.** *post-* 'after, subsequent to' forms adjectives or attributive nouns:

post-Darwinian, post-Elizabethan, post-Kantian, post-canonical (literature), post-Christian (times), post-Reformation (times), the post-glacial age.

Among terms of grammar there are a few nouns with *post-: post-position (of adjectives,* etc.), *post-genitive* (889).

pre- **1674.** *pre-* 'previous to, earlier than' in adjectives or attributive nouns:

pre-Alfredian, pre-Shakespearian, pre-Roman, pre-Reformation (ritual), pre-Christian, pre-historic, pre-Raphaelite, etc.

In verbs *pre-* means 'beforehand, in advance':

pre-acquaint, pre-arrange, pre-determine, pre-engage, etc.

Note that in all these words the prefix is pronounced [pri], according to the rule mentioned in *English Sounds*, ch. 4 (*Stress*).

The noun *pre-history* is probably a backformation from *pre-historical.*

> **A manual of pre-history for older children.**
>
> Times Lit. 12/1, 22.
>
> Pre-history may be studied in the antiquities of every land, excluding only certain islands never inhabited before modern times and the uninhabitable Arctic and Antarctic regions.
>
> ib. 2/2, 22.

In the chapter on the genitive (884) the present author has proposed to use the term *pre-genitive.*

pro- **1675.** *pro-* 'favouring, siding with what is indicated by the second element' is a very common prefix to form adjectives and nouns:

pro-Boer, pro-British, the pro-negro (party), pro-papist, pro-Turk.

pro-'instead of' is rare in Modern English: *pro-rector.*

In this book the term *pro-genitive* has been proposed (911). The term *pro-infinitive* (1471) has met with some success. [1]).

re- **1676.** *re-* 'again' is prefixed to verbs, and to nouns and adjectives derived from them:

rearrange, reconsider, reintroduce, re-cover 'cover again', readmit, reconvert, recount 'count again', re-edit, re-enter, reproduce, re-stock, etc.

---

1) It was first proposed by Jespersen, *Growth and Structure* 211.

Note that *re-* in all these words is pronounced [ri]; see *English Sounds*, ch. 4 (*Stress*).

semi- **1677.** *semi-* 'half':
semicircle, semitone, semi-barbarous.

This condition of semi-invalidism.
Sidgwick, The Severins.

sub- **1678.** *sub-* 'under' forms nouns:
submarine, subway [1]).
It also expresses subordination, as in *sub-committee, sub-editor.*
It is less usual in forming verbs: *sublet* [2]).

super- **1679.** *super* 'above (of place)':
superscribe, superimpose.
It expresses 'beyond' in *supernatural;* 'superiority' in *superintend*; 'excessively' in *superabundant, superfine.*

trans **1680.** *trans-* 'across, over':
transatlantic, transship,

ultra- **1681.** *ultra-* 'excessively':
ultra-marine [3]), *ultra-violet, ultra-liberal, ultra-sentimental.*

in- **1682.** *in-* and *un-* are negative prefixes. Both serve to express the contrary quality to the word they are formed from, or simply to contradict. In the latter function they are equivalent to *non-* (1671), but they are chiefly used to form adjectives.
The first is only used with words that are obviously Latin; it is assimilated to *im-* before lip-consonants (*imperfect,* etc.),

1) 'an underground way'.
2) 'to let as a tenant', e.g. if a tenant lets parts of his house to another.
3) 'dark-blue, approaching black'.

to *il-* before *l (illiberal)*, but these changes had mostly taken place before the words were introduced into English. It is not really an English prefix:

inaccurate, inappreciable, inappropriate, inartistic, incorrect, incurable, indecent, independent, inimitable, insincere, insufficient, interminable, intolerable, invaluable, invincible, etc.

In- is occasionally used to emphasize the meaning of a word: *invaluable* means 'extremely valuable.' Perhaps this must be interpreted to stand for 'what cannot be valued (properly).'

un- **1683.** *un-* is always used in native English and often in naturalized words:

unaccustomed, uncertain, unfair, unfit, unimportant, unutterable, uneatable, unconquerable, unfortunate, unintelligible, unsafe, unseen, unsound, unspeakable, unwise, unworthy; undress, unrest, unbelief.

> Cholsey Church, though not unique, is unordinary in various respects. Oxf. and Camb. Rev.
>
> A look of shame, of miserable unease, had come over Count Paul's face.
>
> Mrs. Belloc Lowndes, Chink in the Armour p. 124.

1684. Sometimes *un-* is used before an adjective, *in-* before the corresponding noun. This is no exception to the rules of 1682 f.: the noun, being abstract, is less usual than the adjective.

Compare: *unable — inability*
unjust — injustice
unequal — inequality
unstable — instability.

Sometimes both *in-* and *un-* are used:

incontrollable, uncontrollable; -in, untranslatable.

By the side of *unequal, unstable* the forms *inequal, instable* occur occasionally. *Inequal* is especially used now in the sense 'uneven' of a surface.

1685. *un-* is also used to form verbs, in which it expresses the reversal of an action [1]):

to unbind, undo, undress, unhorse, unlearn, unfix.

> He carted and uncarted the manure with a sort of flunkey grace. Eliot, Scenes of Clerical Life.
>
> It was a fine and quiet afternoon, about three o'clock; but the winter solstice having stealthily come on, the lowness of the sun caused the hour to seem later than it actually was there being little here to remind an inhabitant that he must unlearn his summer experience of the sky as a dial.
> Hardy, Return of the Native II ch. 1.

1686. Adjectives in *-able, -ed, -ing* with the prefix *un-* may be formed with the negative prefix, mentioned in 1682, or from verbs with the prefix discussed in 1685.

Hence *unstrappable* may mean 'what cannot be strapped', and 'what can be unstrapped'. In the same way a double meaning is possible in *undoable, unbracing, unbending, uncoiled.*

Nouns and attributive adjectives with the prefix *un-* 'not' have a strong medium stress on the prefix; sometimes the stress is even. Verbs, on the other hand, have a less strong stress on the prefix. Hence *'un-'coiled* means *not-coiled*, whereas *un'coiled* is formed from the verb to *un'coil*: an un-coiled rope must be coiled before it can be uncoiled.

In Wordsworth's *Michael* 161: *Albeit of a stern unbending mind* we clearly have the negative prefix, although it is shown by the context only, not by the stress.

The negative prefix *un-* causes participles to have a distinctly adjectival function *unchanging, uncomplaining, unpromising; uncalled-for, unforeseen, untouched* [2]). Compare 519 and 528.

---

1) It is etymologically identical with Dutch *ont-* (e.g. *ontkleden*), German *ent-*.

2) Lists in Palmer, *Grammar of Spoken English* p. 73, 75.

COMPOSITION

1687. The analysis of a sentence into words is partly arbitrary. Thus in *I want to go there* it would be just as reasonable to consider *to* as a prefix to the infinitive, not as an independent word. And the spelling *don't* indicates that *don't* might be looked upon as one as well as two words. In analysing such a sentence as *There is a public house at the corner* it is necessary to look upon *public house* as one word: the spelling in two words may indicate its origin but it would be impossible to analyse the group according to its meaning, for there is nothing in the word *public* to indicate the fact that a *public house* means a house for the sale of drink. Such a combination of words is called a compound.

A compound may, therefore, be defined as a combination of two or more words forming a semantic unit which is not identical with the combined meanings of its elements. Examples of compounds are: *schoolmaster, tale-bearer, nevertheless, all but, by the time* (1479), *to pay attention.*

Origin of Compounds **1688.** A word like *public house* shows the origin of a compound: it is originally an ordinary syntactical group, in this case an attributive adjective followed by a noun. When the meaning of this group became different from the meaning to be inferred from the two independent words the group came to be isolated in the sentence and the two words became an inseparable whole.

Not all compounds are formed in this way. Thus such compounds as *to browbeat, woman baiter* (811), cannot have

originated in the same way as *public house* because in present English an object does not precede its verb, and a noun is not regularly used attributively to express the object of an action denoted by the headword [1]). Such compounds as these are formed on the analogy of earlier compounds. These earlier compounds, however, are due to the fact that in a former stage of the language such syntactical groups were possible.

We may distinguish these two classes as *syntactic* compounds (*public house*) and *analogical* compounds (*to browbeat*).

Form of Compounds **1689.** We have defined composition as depending upon the meaning of word-groups. The result is that we must speak of a compound in *for my brother's sake*. This is unobjectionable, and indeed necessary, for it is impossible to analyse the group *for .... sake*. But it is evident, too, that there is an important difference between a compound like *for .... sake*, and *schoolmaster*. In the former case the two elements are separated by other words, in *schoolmaster* the two elements are inseparable. Accordingly, we may distinguish *distance-compounds*, and *contact-compounds*.

1690. Although a compound is a unit in meaning, the unity of a syntactic compound is strengthened if it is isolated in form from similar syntactical groups. This may be done by giving one of the elements a different form. But this is very rare in present-day English owing to its scanty inflectional forms. The only case is composition by giving an ending *o* to first element, which is always a Latin or at least a Latinized form:

> Anglo-Indian, Anglo-Catholic, the Franco-German war, the Russo-Japanese war.

---

1) But it is frequent with a gerund for the second element of a compound: *letter-writing, boot-polishing*, etc. Compare also this sentence:

> Most children remember their first Channel crossing.
>
> Mackenzie, Seven Ages of Woman ch. 2.

1691. Another means of isolating the elements of a syntactical group in a sentence is stress. A combination like *to whitewash* might be considered as a converted noun; and the noun *whitewash* being a combination of an adjective and a noun, might be a syntactical group. But such a syntactical group has even stress in present English, and *whitewash* has uneven stress: hence it must be considered a compound. For the same reason *to blackball* is a compound [1]).

1692. A noun with a prepositional adjunct is often shown to be a compound by its stress on the last element.

> A matter-of-course. Matter-of-fact.
> A man of the world. A bill of fare. A man-of-war.
> The German has ever been the pedlar and not the pioneer of civilization, *the follower of the camp* [2]) and not the leader of the van. Times Lit. 18/11, '15.

1693. A group of adjective and noun is proved to be a compound by having uneven stress, for a syntactical group of the kind is even-stressed. On this ground we must speak of composition in the old formations *quicksilver*, *blackbird*, but also in the modern *young man*, *fine lady* (often spelt *fine-lady*).

1694. In *Joan and Peter* (ch. 11 § 16) Mr. Wells writes:

> She ceased to be a leggy person with a skirt like a kilt and a dark shock of hair not under proper control; instead she became visibly a young lady, albeit a very young young lady and suddenly all adult conversation was open to her.

The stress would, no doubt, be *'young, young 'lady*. And *young lady* has clearly become so much a compound that an attributive (even-stressed) *young* must precede to distinctly suggest age.

---

1) It may also be argued that the meaning of *whitewash* and *blackball* have diverged so much from the meaning of each element that the groups should be called compounds on the ground of their meaning.

2) Compare *camp-follower*.

Similarly, Mr. Galsworthy (*Freelands* ch. 4 p. 32) speaks of *the half tame wild duck.*

1695. Words are also clearly compounds on account of their form when a suffix is added to the whole group: *booksellers, lock-outs, old maidish.*

A group with a noun, whether in the genitive or in the common case, for its first element is often to be looked upon as a compound because a preceding adjective qualifies the group as a whole.

> For the next four days he lived a simple and blameless life on thin captain's biscuits (I mean that the biscuits were thin, not the captain). Jerome, Three Men in a Boat.
>
> Mr. Wertheimer was probably the oldest fine art dealer in London. Times W. 16/8, '18.

1696. When there is no formal characteristic of a compound at all, it is frequently impossible to say whether the syntactical group is sufficiently differentiated from the meaning of its elements to justify its being called a compound.

This applies to many groups with a noun for their first element. The noun may have the form of the common case (singular or plural), or of the genitive. On the distinction of these compounds from groups with an attributive genitive or common case, see the sections on the *Case and Number of Nouns*, also on the *Conversion of Nouns into Adjectives.*

The following are examples of such modern compounds:

> Class struggle, class-consciousness, character portrayal, character development, life forces, heart-palpitations, breadcoupon, breadcard, ration book, school inspector, income tax, taxi-driver, motor car, flying machine, flying grounds.
>
> These two books on Russia illustrate a marked contrast of author-type. Times Lit. 5/8, '15.
>
> Chaucer, Spenser, Shakespeare, Milton, and Wordsworth might have defied even a mad doctor to prove his worst.
> Birrell, Obiter Dicta p. 29.

1697. Compound verbs are generally formed with adverbs. If the adverb precedes, the combination is very close, and the stress is sometimes uneven. Groups with a final adverb are not full compounds (see the sections on the *Order of Words*); they have even stress [1]), and are separable.

to overcome, to outbid; to pass by, to draw back, etc.

[Si'daun] *sit down* is to be considered a compound on account of its form; see *English Sounds*, ch. 4 (*Assimilation in familiar and vulgar English*).

Semi-Compounds **1698.** Some groups are not completely isolated, so that we cannot call them compounds; yet the elements are so closely connected in meaning that they differ from similar syntactical groups. We may call these combinations semi-compounds. Such are *anything but, all but* (but see 1319 f), *may be, in case* (conjunction), *to think fit, to keep house* (hence *housekeeper*), *to take care of, to pay attention* [2]), etc. The combinations of *little* with a noun may often be called semi-compounds, unless they are treated as real compounds on account of their uneven stress.

Compare also the following sentences.

Yet, *for all* its want of passion, the Annual Register does not make dull reading. Times Lit. 29/5, 24.

The steps fell lightly and oddly, with a certain swing, *for all* they went so slowly. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 79.

By the time they reached the street Derek had already started. Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 35.

I shall be perfectly all right [3]).

Bennett, Clayhanger II ch. 16.

Almost all the characters, *ever so* casually introduced,

---

1) See *English Sounds*, ch. 4 (*Stress*).

2) In these cases of semi-composition there may be formal isolation; see 279.

3) Note that *perfectly* qualifies the group *all right*.

reappear in Saxo's Danish History and the Icelandic Sagas [1]).
Times Lit. 12/1, 22.

He was *more than usually* [2]) *polite.*

1699. We may also consider as semi-compounds the verbs that take what is called a prepositional object: *to laugh at a man.* The preposition really forms part of the verb and has the function of an adverb rather than of a preposition. This is especially clear in the passive construction: *I won't be laughed at.* These groups differ, however, from the separable verbal compounds like to *put on, to take off* (1696) in that the object can never separate the two elements of the group *(put it on,* but *he laughed at it).*

We may also consider the preposition-equivalents discussed in 1288 as semi-compounds: *in virtue of, in presence of, in front of.*

Another group of semi-compounds are the *appositional compounds*: *the characters of the stone-breaker witness and the tramp witness* (Galsworthy, Freelands, ch. 33). See 807 ff. on the plurals of such groups.

The plural of such groups as *son-in-law* (805) shows that it is not looked upon as a complete compound.

See also below, on *Conversion.*

Composition and Derivation

1700. The distinction between composition and derivation is not an essential one. Indeed, it is frequently impossible to say whether a word is a compound or a derivative.

Thus many words with prefixes might be called compounds. As to form, they are often even-stressed, like many other compounds. And as to meaning, the prefix, though not used as an independent word, frequently has as much independent meaning as a real word. See also 1665.

1) Compare the compounds *however*, etc.

2) Compare: He was more polite than usual (not *usually*). *More than usually* is equivalent to *unusually, extraordinarily.*

Similarly such a suffix as *-ana* is felt to be equivalent to an independent word, so that it is occasionally even used as such; see 1572.

1701. On the other hand, words that are formally compounds may often be considered derivatives. Thus *grandfather* might perhaps be called a compound, but *grand* certainly is no more than a prefix in *grandson*.

1702. Similarly *stark* in *stark blind, stark dead, stark mad,* etc. is no more than a prefix, even though the independent word *stark* is used in poetical English.

1703. In some words the second element is little more than a suffix. Such are the words in *monger*. The word itself is not much used, and is practically a suffix in such words as *cheesemonger, costermonger, ironmonger, fishmonger*.

It is frequent in new-formations, usually denoting a contemptible or discreditable 'trade' or 'traffic', e.g. *ceremony-monger, fashion-monger, news-monger, pardon-monger, scandalmonger*.

Compare also the following quotations.

> Ah, Mr. Haggard, what an incorrigible hero-monger you are! Academy 28/7 1900.
>
> The monastic visitors appointed by Thomas Cromwell were men of the vilest stamp, odious slander-mongers, whose charges are unworthy of credence. Athenaeum 25/1 1908.
>
> A poet, or even a passable verse-monger. Academy 23/4 1910.
>
> It may be asserted of all parties to the controversy that whatever else they may be they are mystery-mongers. New Statesman 11/1, '19.
>
> The tendency of my speculations was towards excuse-mongering. De Morgan, Vance ch. 49 p. 492.

The words in *-like (childlike, springlike),* the nouns in *ful (mouthful),* as also such words as *understand, undertake,*

withstand, *withdraw* may indifferently be looked upon as compounds or as derivatives. But the adjectives in *-ful* (*dutiful*, *youthful*) seem to be rather derivatives.

1704. Compounds in [-mən] *man* are also little more than derivatives: *fisherman*, *Frenchman*. Hence a woman presiding at a meeting may be addressed as 'Mrs. Chairman' [1]). When the second element is [mæn] we naturally have compounds: *the butterman*, *chair-man* [2]).

1705. The second part of the following compounds has so little meaning that it might be called a suffix.

> Yes, I know you think that I'm a fuss-box [3]).
> Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 26 p. 325.
>
> These editor-fellows, in their anxiety to fill up their papers, don't stop to realise what they're doing half the time.
> Cotes, Cinderella ch. 10 p. 112.
>
> The yacht was all ready for sea. The captain fellow was on the bridge and steam was up.
> Bennett, Grand Babylon Hotel ch. 15.
>
> He bent round and looked under the blue veil-thing that wrapped Nedda's head. Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 17.

Similarly *our soldier-men*, *some painter-fellows*, *those feeder-things*.

On the compound indefinite pronouns with *-thing* or *-body* for their second element, see 1417 ff.

---

1) e.g. Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 11 § 19. But *chairwoman* occurs, too; at least as an ordinary class-noun: see Poutsma II, p. 347.

2) i.e. man collecting the pennies for the use of a chair in a public park.

3) On the model of *chatterbox*. But *chairwoman* occurs, too; at least as an ordinary class-noun: see Poutsma II, p. 347.

CONVERSION

Introductory

Partial Conversion

1706. There are hardly any formal distinctions in present English between the parts of speech. There is nothing in the form of *walk* to show if it is a noun or a verb or any other part of speech. This makes it easy for a word to be used in different functions. Thus, although *dig* is a verb, we can say *to give a person a dig in the ribs.* In the latter expression *dig* is used as a noun, so that the verb *dig* has been converted into a noun. The speaker of Modern English, however, still feels that the word is 'properly' a verb. This is the reason why it is unusual for *dig* to be used in the plural, though the indefinite article might suggest that it is a class-noun.

Sometimes the conversion is less complete. We may say: *She looks after the poor of her parish;* here the adjective *poor* has been converted into a noun but it cannot be used as a singular and *the poor* has no plural ending, though nouns in that meaning take such an ending.

Cases like these are, therefore, cases of partial conversion.

Complete Conversion

1707. When a converted word develops a meaning of its own it often diverges so far from its original function that it is felt to be a independent word. Thus *vegetable* as a noun is not felt to be an adjective used as a noun, because the noun *vegetable* has a much narrower

meaning than the adjective. Such cases of complete conversion can only be known as such (at least with certainty) to the student of the history of language. From the standpoint of the speaker of the living language they are homonyms.

Other instances of conversion having led to the development of independent words are the following: the nouns *goods; essentials; Latin Unseens* (= passages to be translated which have not been announced before the lesson or examination takes place); *intimate; orderly; neutral; detective;* many nouns in *-ics*, as *mathematics, phonetics; editorial; elder.* They have completely diverged in meaning from the corresponding adjectives and may take all the formal characteristics of nouns (articles, genitive and plural ending). When we say *to take a walk* the noun may still be felt as converted from the verb, but in *a gravel walk* the meaning differs so widely from the verb that we must consider it as a word independent of the verb.

1708. Similarly the words *choice, dainty,* though originally nouns only, have been developed into the adjectives *choice* and *dainty.* As such they can take the degrees of comparison with *-er, -est,* whereas attributive nouns that are not completely converted are seldom used in the comparative and superlative (1489), and if they are, generally take *more* and *most.*

1709. Nominal predicates are generally nouns or adjectives. When adverbs are so used *(Mr. A is out)* we might speak of an adverb converted into a predicative adjective. But this use of adverbs is too common to be felt as something exceptional: hence we do not call it a case of conversion.

1710. Again, a word may remain the same part of speech and yet develop a meaning that is felt as belonging to a

different word. A class-noun, e.g., may thus be used without an article, as in the following sentence:

> We might dispense with Hague Conferences. War is going to cease because people adequately civilized will not endure hardness.
>
> (In this sentence *war* is equivalent to the abstract word *fighting*).

Consider also the collective meaning of words that are usually class-nouns in the following sentences:

> (This method) allows the omission of wearisome and unnecessary detail, and a choice of characteristic incidents; it encourages the interpolation of anecdote and philosophic comment.
>
> (The buffalo) is about the size of a large ox, of immense bone and strength.

A proper name may be used as a class-noun:

> Knowing this a young *Westminster* (i.e. a boy at Westminster school) is sometimes puzzled.

In the following sections only those cases of conversion will be treated that are felt as such by a present English speaker.

Verbs

1711. Verbs are often used as nouns denoting the action, especially if there is no corresponding noun to denote that meaning.

Most of these nouns are used in the singular only; some occur only in certain expressions, especially with an indefinite article. The conversion of verbs into nouns is also limited by the existence of suffixes to form nouns from verbs, such as *-ing*, *-ship*, *-er*, *-ee*, *-ster*. See the sections on *Derivation*.

To have a wash, a shave, a smoke; she had a good cry; to make a move.

I begged the Boers to give my horse a feed.

Give me a lift.

He is always on the go.

I cannot bear the feel of flannel near my skin.

In our next number it is proposed to publish some illustrations of the exhibit of the Oxford University Press at the Brussels International Exhibition.

Every upward send emptied the noble little craft, like pulling out a plug in a washbasin.

Another half-hour brought us to a divide of the road.

His horse was accommodated where it might have the necessary rest and feed of corn.

She had heard, within the minute, the stop of a cab at her door. Henry James, Golden Bowl.

Is it as late as that? I was just going to settle down to another read.

The luxury of a good swear has hitherto seemed as distinctively masculine a prerogative as that of "a good cry" has been a feminine indulgence; but nowadays we have changed all this. Athenaeum 30/11, '12.

The lie of the literary landscape in this wonderful time will become apparent to you as you read. Mair, Eng. Lit.

Airy shows and seems had no effect on him.

1712. The transitive use of verbs that are usually intransitive and vice versa, may also be considered as conversion.

I stood the candle upon the floor of the alcove and left it in that position. Wells, Country of the Blind.

In the "falling" of big timber the axe has nowadays been practically abandoned for the saw.

Times, Empire Ed. May 24, 1911.

The bath slowly filled.

1713. By the side of the noun *bath*, the verb *to bathe* has

given rise to a new noun [beiŏ] *bathe*, which is exclusively used in the sense of "the act of bathing in running water."

> It (viz. the book) makes the reader feel pleasant, rather as one feels after a cosy hot bath than after a bathe in a windy sea. Times Lit. 18/11, '15.

1714. The linguistic standing of most of the converted verbs is shown by the following quotation.

> The illegitimate use of certain verbs as nouns is growing very common — as an *invite*, a *deal*, a *win*. Mr. Alexander thinks that a *combine* "has practically become recognised by now." Times Lit. 15/6, '16 in a review of Alexander, *Common Faults in Writing English*.

Nouns

Nouns as Adjectives

Form of Attributive Nouns

1715. Most nouns can be used attributively. Like other groups of attributive word and headword these combinations have even stress.

1716. Some class-nouns when used attributively are used in the genitive, to express certain relations. See the sections on *Case of Nouns* and 1750.

1717. Apart from the class-nouns that can take a genitive to express some relations, class-nouns generally do not show any change of form when used attributively. Even when the meaning is undoubtedly plural they are generally used in the singular, or rather neutral, form (*a*). Plural attributive nouns are exceptionally used (*b*); see also the sections in the chapter on *Nouns*.

a. Four representatives of the German Adult School Movement are visiting Sheffield [1]).

There was a keen competition for the three one-hundred guinea cups. Daily News.

The personalities of undergraduate Oxford.
Sinister Street p. 587.

Stewart of Trinity represented an undergraduate type that perhaps had endured and would endure longer than any of the others. ib. ib.

He watched the pleasant Carthew cook shelling peas.
ib. p. 86.

Finally owing to some alteration in the Buckley home, Buckley became a boarder. ib. p. 105,

The lowland marshes. Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. I p. 5.

b. They have appealed to the Young Turks party to abolish the harem system.

The Claims Committee have dealt with 211 cases.

The opposition to Charles I was composed of the country gentlemen class.

1718. In many cases it is doubtful whether the attributive noun has a plural meaning.

We do not believe it (viz. an island) has been used for enemy purposes. Times W. 27/11, '14.

Here and there, in a peasant family, or a small country tradesman's just raised above a peasant, honest regenerating blood will be found. Meredith, Ormont ch. 2 p. 38.

In the first place, it is unwise to begin research on manuscript material without having exhausted the printed sources.
Johnson, Public Record Office p. 47 (compare: The Historical Manuscripts Commission).

For nothing in the parsonage way could be more perfect than his parsonage. Trollope, Framley ch. 2 p. 11.

1719. When a noun is always used in a plural form, or a

1) i.e. the movement in favour of schools for grown-up people.

form suggesting a plural, it sometimes retains its final sound in attributive use (*a*); but sometimes the final *s* is lost (*b*).

a. News agencies. The railway goods porters; the wages question (but also: the wage [1]) census), the goods traffic, sports garments.

b. The Balkan States, League, Settlement, etc.

1720. Many of these attributive groups, however, approach to the nature of compounds, especially when the first part loses its *s*. As a rule these groups have also uneven stress:

a scissor-grinder, a trouser-button, a spectacle-case, a wage-earner, an ash-bin, billiard-table, ash-tray, draught-board, etc.

When *-s* is not lost composition may be shown by uneven stress, although the stressing is occasionally doubtful.

The great explosion at a London munitions factory.
Times W. 26/1, '17.

The contents-tables; a clothes-brush; a bellows-mender, a customs-house (also custom-house), the power station and waterworks men, an explosives factory.

See also the sections below on the attributive use of nouns denoting sex and age.

Relations in Attributive Groups

1721. The semantic relations between the attributive noun and its headword depend upon the form and meaning of the former.

The relation between genitives and plural nouns to their headwords have been discussed in the chapter on *Nouns*, so that we need here treat of those nouns only that have no suffix or other ending.

1722. The relations between the attributive noun and its

1) It should be remembered, however, that the noun is both *wages* and *wage*.

headword is greatly dependent upon the meaning of the attributive noun. Certain classes of nouns occur very often in an attributive function so that it is convenient to begin with these.

Proper Names **1723.** The function of attributive proper names is very various, but generally clear enough. On the whole we can say that the proper name expresses origin or habitat.

a Brussels carpet; a Turkey carpet; Brussels sprouts; Suffolk records and mss. (= manuscripts); Shakespeare's Warwickshire contemporaries; Devonshire Characters and Strange Events (title); Hindu life and ideas; Rhodes scholars; by the kindness of a Scottish Hamburg merchant; a Cambridge professor.

The Transvaal Government severely and successfully repressed these proceedings.

Barry Lyndon has never appealed to more than a minority even of Thackeray enthusiasts.

1724. Proper names of persons and countries often have a corresponding adjective. When towns have such an adjective they are generally, or were once, seats of empires.

the Homeric	poems	An Icelandic primer
	question	An English grammar
a Shakespearian scholar		African explorers
a Virgilian scholar		Athenian statesmen
Byronic poetry		Roman consuls
Horatian poetry		Viennese furniture
Victorian literature		Cairene society.

When they wrote blank verse, the classic poets wrote it in the Milton manner. Mair, Eng. Lit., p. 127.

Thomson wrote two poems respectively in the Spenserian and the Miltonic manner. ib. p. 128.

1725. When geographical proper names have a corresponding adjective the noun may be used attributively to

express place, whereas the adjective expresses or implies a quality (see 1751).

The Rome outrage (i. e. the attempt, at Rome, on the life of the king of Italy).

A Paris banker: a banker who has a business at Paris.

A Parisian banker; a banker who is a native of Paris.

The Turkey trade — the Turkish trade.

The China seas — The Chinese trade.

On the 22nd of December he resumed his ordinary Genoa life. Forster-Gissing. — A Genoese merchant.

The First Lord of the Admiralty and Mrs. McKenna have been staying at Etretat, on the Normandy coast.

The Norman kings of England.

A pair of Norway rats. Allen, Kentucky Cardinal ch. 6.

1726. Sometimes they are used indifferently.

The settlement of the Alaska dispute; Canada and the Alaskan award (in the same article). Pilot.

And even in the cases mentioned in 1725 the difference is by no means strictly observed, unless there is reason to fear ambiguity. Hence the adjective is often used to express a relation in space only.

The consular reports show a falling off in our Chinese trade (i. e. trade of the English to China).

The Rev. Griffith John, one of the best known Chinese missionaries, died in London to-day.

Names of Materials

1727. Names of materials are freely used attributively to express things made of the material.

a silver ring; a gold chain; rubber goods; a straw hat; a stuff gown, list slippers; a steel pen; a brass candlestick; an ivory chest, a copper kettle; a tin box; etc.

1728. Some names of materials have corresponding adjectives in *-en* to express 'made of', but the nouns are also used attributively in the same meaning.

Such adjectives are *beechen, flaxen, hempen, leaden, leathern, oaken, oaten, wheaten.*

A beech bedstead. Plain beechen vessels. Flax canvas. Flax sandals. Flaxen thread. Lead pipes. A leaden roof.
A leather armchair. Oat(en) bread.
The oak table. Times Lit. 8/2, '18.

1729. We find both *wooden* and *wood, woollen* and *wool.* The usual attributive forms are the adjectives *wooden* and *woollen.* But the nouns are used in compounds denoting the kind of *wood* and *wool; wool* is also used attributively when it means *knitting-wool.*

I saw a tiny rosewood chest. C. Brontë, Villette ch. 1.
A large stove, an oaken table, and one or two long birch-wood benches completed the furniture. Times Lit. 8/2 '18.
Maplewood chairs. A little sandalwood box.
Shetland wool shawls.
A small wool hat. W. Irving, Sketch-Book.

1730. In literary English we also find the material adjectives *golden* and *brazen,* whereas in spoken English *gold* and *brass* are used.

Who would not barter all the brass candlesticks and crosses and brazen eagles that are turned out by the hundred for one of the sculptured oak leaves from St. Frideswide's shrine? Barbara, p. 84.

Mozes and the Brazen Serpent.
The Golden Calf.
The hen that laid the golden eggs.

1731. It seems that *birch* and *earth* are never used attributively. In this case the adjectives *birchen, earthen* are always used.

1732. Material nouns are also used attributively in other ways. See also 1753.

Steel filings. A steel engraving.
An ivory dealer. A copper beech.
A famous linen shop. The linen sales.

1733. In literary English the material adjectives are also used in a wider meaning sometimes: *beechen, oaken, ashen,* and *aspen* are often so used.

Under yonder beechen shade.
With breezes from the oaken glades.
Ashen leaves. An aspen leaf [1]).

1734. In spoken English the nouns are generally used in this case, even when there is a corresponding adjective (*a*). In many cases, however, such groups must be considered as compounds, especially when they have uneven stress (*b*).

a, The flax trade. Wool prices.
b. An earth-dam. A birchrod; a beech-nut; an oak-apple.

1735. *Wood* is the first element of a compound in *wood pulp* (uneven stress).

It is also used in *a wood fire* [2]), *a wood pavement;* it really seems to be identical in function to *wooden* in these and some similar cases.

The wood threshing-floor.
Hardy, Far from the Madding Crowd ch. 22.
I am sorry that my chairs all have wood seats.
id. ib. ch. 56.

Instead of *wood fire* we also find *fire of wood.*

---

1) The attributive adjective *aspen* has been taken for a noun, so that *aspen* is sometimes used for *asp.* This shows that in such groups as *gold watch* we really have a converted noun *gold,* not an adjective.

2) Even stress in Sweet's Element., n°. 14 (p. 66).

There is always a little fire of wood on the open hearth in the kitchen when I get home at night.

Fairless, Roadmender V.

The combination *the woollen industry* is not really an exception, for *woollen* stands here for *woollen goods*, see 1732.

1736. Both the nouns denoting materials (*a*) and the adjectives in *-en* (*b*) are often used in a figurative meaning.

a. A silver wedding. An iron will.

The Iron Age.

An india-rubber conscience.

She turned her ivory shoulder on him.

There is a silver lining to every cloud.

The present writer remembers her in the thirties, a widow of vinegar aspect, inhabiting a villa at Iffley.

b. Remembering his promise to the golden-haired boys.

Wakeman, introd. p. 10.

A golden opportunity; a golden saying.

The golden mean; the golden Age.

On that brazen July day. Sinister Street p. 573.

Her grand-daughter Philippa was in the girl's waxen age.

Meredith, Ormont ch. 3 p. 46.

The rest of her face was ashen pale.

Gaskell, North and South ch. 22 p. 195.

Her cheeks were ashen white.

Temple Thurston, City of Beautiful Nonsense III ch. 13.

Under its leaden rule little scope was left for the free and healthy exercise of mind.

The green islands lay desolate in the midst of the leaden sea.

Wooden manners. A wooden face.

Clad in her white night-dress, with her silken hair falling around her face and setting it in a golden frame, she looked strangely beautiful. Buchanan, That Winter Night.

Dr. Gairdner has won golden opinions for his absolute fairness as well as his tireless industry.

When you are up against a serious anti-climax it is a golden rule to begin a fresh chapter.
Snaith, Principal Girl.

Armaments are not determined by a brazen law, they depend upon policy. Daily News.

His beard and moustache were golden yellow.

The sun still nettled their top boughs, as with golden silk.
Galsworthy, Fraternity, ch. 20.

1737. When a noun has a corresponding adjective the latter only is used in a figurative meaning, but compounds always have the noun-form.

The tall figure with the dull gold hair.
Sinister Street p. 646.

Old gold silk.

There was Monica with her pale gold hair.
Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 45.

Both *flax* and *flaxen* are used with reference to *hair*.

His sympathies were powerfully excited by their white skins, blue eyes, and flaxen hair. Wakeman, Introd. p. 10.

1738. The material adjectives are also used predicatively in a figurative meaning.

I have never felt the atmosphere of the House[1]) so leaden.

The air was so golden and balmy ....
Sinister Street p. 87.

Golden lie the meadows; golden run the streams; red gold is on the pine-stems. Meredith, Feverel ch. 19.

Names of points of the compass

1739. Nouns expressing points of the compass as well as the corresponding adjectives may be used attributively.

1) i. e. the House of Commons.

Rome lay on the south bank of the Tiber, the chief navigable river of the western slope. Goodspeed.

The East Coast. A west wind.

The shades of Tailordom dispersed like fog before the south-west breeze. Meredith, Harrington ch. 16 p. 162.

1740. Before names of countries we use the noun to denote a political division of the country:
North Holland, South America.

Otto II planned the conquest of South Italy and Sicily.
Davis, Med. Europe p. 84.

But *Northern Holland* expresses 'the northern provinces of Holland.' Compare also *the Western hemisphere.*

Appositional Groups

1741. Some attributive nouns form the first element of a group that may be considered as an appositional compound. They regularly have even stress, apart from the cases of contrasting stress, which are not unfrequent. The appositional character of these compounds is also clear sometimes from their way of forming the plural (807 ff.).

1742. Frequent among the appositional compounds are those with *man* and *woman* to express sex. They are especially prefixed to nouns expressing a trade, profession, or occupation. *Lady* and *gentleman* are similarly used.

As the war proceeds the demand for skilled women-workers for many kinds of work increases steadily.
Times Ed. S. 7/9, '16.

Women medical students. Women doctors.

Women farm-workers. Women conductors.

The court was crowded with women sympathisers of the suffragist agitation.

Camilla went to lunch with Mrs. St. Erth next day, and on to the dressmaker, and it was a man dressmaker she found, who had lovely things ready to slip on.
Sidgwick, Severins p. 164.

These remarkable successes of women students are no doubt due in part to the reduction in the number of men students owing to military duties. Times 13/7 '16.

"I have more friends in New York than in S. — more gentlemen friends; and more young lady friends too," she resumed in a moment. James, Daisy Miller ch. 1.

The need for lady practitioners in a land where women refuse to be attended by men doctors. Times Ed. S. 4/4, '16.

1743. The sex of animals is similarly indicated by prefixing *bull* and *cow* (to *elephant, calf, giraffe, antelope, buffalo* etc.); or *cock* and *hen* (to *canary, partridge, pheasant, quail, sparrow*, etc.); *he* and *she* (to *ass, bear, goat, wolf*).

The reversed order in *turkey-cock, turkey-hen; peacock, peahen; guinea-cock, guinea-hen* shows that the compounds are appositional in character.

Note also *tom-cat, she-cat; jack-ass, jenny-ass; billy-goat, nanny-goat.*

1744. The words used to denote the sex of persons are rarely used for animals.

A man-seal.

Lying in the porch was a little moonlight-coloured lady bulldog, of toy breed. Galsworthy, Fraternity ch. 1.

1745. *Gentleman* and *lady* are also used attributively to denote rank. Similarly *boy* and *girl* do not denote sex only but at the same time age.

A gentleman-farmer. Lady-gardeners.

Dorothea Beale is known to all as the accomplished and successful Lady Principal of the Ladies' College, Cheltenham.

Boy-friend, boy-child.
Boy-husband, girl-wife.
The Boy-Hunters of the Mississippi (title).
A boy-apprentice. Bennett, Old Wives' Tale p. 64.

1746. There are also other appositional compounds.

He is the last man known to have read Menander, he was one of the first of the long roll of statesman-bishops.
Times Lit. 4/3, '15.

For the bachelor girl the Colonies have no use.

Our young woman must eschew the sterile allurements of girl-bachelordom and perfect herself in the primeval arts of the home.

Amidst all this revelry the stranger guest maintained a most singular and unseasonable gravity.

Still quick to blush as far as the skin of a grandmother matron might show it. Meredith, Ormont ch. 2 p. 40.

It would be such a pleasant surprise to his sister to see her little daughter bringing home her long lost sailor uncle.
Mary Lamb in Selected Short Stories II p. 2.

1747. The order of the two parts of an appositional group is sometimes indifferent. Compare the two quotations with *bachelor* above, and also the wording of the following resolution reported in the Times (27/11, 14) under the heading *Enemy Aliens:*

that it is highly desirable, in the interest of London, that a large number of *alien enemies* . . . :

1748. Appositional groups sometimes serve to express comparison, not identity.

A giant tree.
The forbidding, difficult, waspish, and even hedgehog Sophia.
Bennett, Old Wives' Tale p. 112.

Attributive Noun and *of*- adjunct **1749.** In some cases the relation of the attributive noun and its headword is one that might also be expressed by an adjunct with *of*.

When their pails would hold no more, they began to fill their jacket and waistcoat pockets.

But as they grew up, children, even his own, began to have a little of the village feeling [1]) towards Tod.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 11, p. 127.

His best predecessor in novel literature.

Last summer's famous motor-car race from Pekin to Paris.

Athen.

I may wear grown-up dresses in future.

Attributive Noun and Genitive **1750.** When the attributive noun is one denoting persons the alternative genitive-construction is occasionally found in the same meaning. See 1716.

One of those broad, bright English country faces with deep-set rogue eyes and red, thick, soft lips.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 10 p. 119. (Also ib. p. 120).

Her rogue's eyes. ib. p. 121.

Attributive Noun and Adjective **1751.** Attributive nouns often denote place or time (*a*). Sometimes there is a corresponding adjective to denote a less restricted meaning (*b*). See also 1723 ff on attributive proper names.

a. Gloves for country and seaside wear.

The top shelf. The half-past-two train.

The Queen Anne writers.

As far as I've observed, the top thing to be over here is a Bishop. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 7 p. 76.

Sunday shop hours.

---

1) i.e. the feeling of the village people.

b. A Bible word is a word found in the bible. Compare: biblical criticism.

A morning walk is a walk taken in the morning. Compare: Our household was the most matutinal in the world.

The end house is the house at the end of the street. Compare: We made a series of final measurements.

The funeral service; a funereal look.

But sometimes there does not seem to be any difference; in the following quotations *neighbour* denotes a relation of place, and does not differ from *neighbouring*.

From stubble fields sounded the long caw of rooks; a sleepy crowing ever and anon told of the neighbour farm; my doves cooed above their cot.

Gissing, Henry Ryecroft Ch. XVIII.

At Southwell Lord Byron lived when he wrote his "Hours of Idleness," and the book was published by Ridge, in the neighbour-town of Newark. Hole, Memories p. 16.

Vague Relation **1752.** In many cases the relation between attributive nouns and their headwords is very vague (*a*). Indeed, it often requires special knowledge of the facts to be sure what a group is intended to express (*b*). Compare 1687.

a. The preferential-tariff agitation. The foot police.

This is a task of such dimensions and difficulty as, in the language of joint-stock prospectuses, 'to transcend individual enterprise.' Birrell, Obiter Dicta p. 32.

The twenty-first annual show of the Wensleydale Agricultural Society was held on Saturday in dull weather. It was fitting Lord Bolton should be president of the coming-of-age exhibition, as his father was present on the "christening" of the society.

Dick says they're a broken-winded, Sunday-go to-meeting lot — and so they are. Kenealy, Mrs. Grundy.

It is impossible, alas! to maintain that you were a Throne and Altar Tory. Lang, Letters p. 135.

The soviet leaders; soviet rule; the soviet system; the soviet constitution; the All-Russia Soviet Congress; the soviet idea; soviet government; soviet regulations; the soviet plan; the Soviet State, etc. Times.

b. The Empire First tea-party was really a function, with flowers and lackeys in profusion.... It interested me very much to notice the different kinds of people with whom the Empire was first. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 28, p. 283.

This is a book in an American series, entitled "Government Handbooks"; which does not mean, as might be interpreted, handbooks bearing the imprimatur of Government, but handbooks describing and explaining the systems of government adopted by various peoples. Times Lit. 27/9, '18.

Mr. Asquith has lately been away for a brief holiday. Nevertheless it is hardly fair for a daily paper to announce on its posters: — England's Premier Sporting Daily. Punch 8/9, '15.

Conversion and Composition

1753. Many of the above attributive groups, though even-stressed, approach to compounds. The appositional groups are generally considered as such. It is especially the vagueness of the relation between the attributive noun and its headword that causes the group to resemble a compound. Few would probably hesitate to call the following groups compounds: *cattle show, flower show, world show.*

Also *sea monsters, field gun, a penny-bank* (compare *a penny loaf).*

The month of August is always a great time for local horse shows in Ireland.

The dead bells had been ringing for a general's funeral. Thomas, Lafcadio Hearn p. 17.

The close relation of the elements of the group is also shown by the fact that they can take suffixes:

a Tariff-Reformer, A Trade Unionist, a Quarterly Reviewer. Note also *girl-bachelordom* in 1746; also *country doctor* in 1766.

Three degrees, of successively closer unity, are illustrated by the following sentence:

> My father is the curate of a *village church*, about five miles from Amwell. I was born in the *parsonage-house*, which joins the *church-yard*. Mary Lamb in Selected Short Stories II p. 1.

1754. Occasionally the spelling denotes that the group is felt as a compound.

Home truth, home question are often spelt *home-truth, home-question.*

> What a nice word 'home' is, and everything connected with it.... All except home-truths.
>
> People who pique themselves upon telling home truths.

Home-made can hardly be anything else than a compound; it seems to be the starting-point for such formations as *York made*, etc. [1]).

> York was also renowned for the work of its gold- and silver-smiths. Much of the church plate is York made, and is principally of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.
>
> York, p. 27.

Adjectival Character of Nouns

1755. The attributive use of nouns causes them to assume an adjectival character. But the conversion is generally limited to the attributive use. It is only exceptionally that these nouns are used as predicative adjectives, or that they are compared like true adjectives. It is also unusual for attributive nouns to be separated from their headword or to be qualified by adverbs.

1756. The following quotations contain nouns that have come to be used predicatively because they are frequently used attributively. Their predicative use, however, is in most cases exceptional.

---

1) See Poutsma, Participles p. 225.

All these roses are dwarf. Elizabeth.
The work is still copyright.
The remark is commonplace.
Altogether they are what you call 'model.'
Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 6.

Several times I said things that ought to have resulted in my being taken along them, but the parson heeded not; his talk was and remained wholly church. Elizabeth in Rügen.

Mr. J. S. Fletcher is more at home in Yorkshire, but *The Ivory God, and other Stories* (John Murray) are not predominantly Yorkshire. Athenaeum 11/11, 1908.

I had some runts [1]) too. You know there is the Spanish runt, and the runt of Friesland, and then there are Leghorn runts. Mine were Friesland. Niven, Porcelain Lady.

For Mr. Green's method is by no means impressionist.
Punch.

Of the four Universities, Edinburgh alone is Post-Reformation. Lord Guthrie, in Everyman.

His mother was Low Church and his father was a Presbyterian but never went to any place of worship. Cannan, Corner.

Well, they [2])'re Paris, anyhow. Henry James, Reverberator.

Archers are nomad and gregarious. Hole, Memories p. 18.

The High Church movement of the preceding thirty years was as intensely national as it was Tory.
Wakeman, Introd. p. 415.

Nurse was staunchly Oxford. Sinister Street p. 54.

The rivers had only themselves to support, for Staffordshire rivers have remained virgin of keels to this day.
Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 1 § 1.

1757. Cases like the following, where the noun is used semi-predicatively, are also rare.

---

1) Runt: a large breed of domestic pigeons.

2) The gloves. Compare:

She had been aware that they (i.e. her dresses) were not Parisian, nor even of London; but she had thought them pretty good.
Bennett, Old W. Tale III ch. 2 § 1.

'I hope your mother won't give me anything fancy to do,' said Anna. 'I'm no good at anything except plain sewing.'
Bennett, Anna of the Five Towns ch. 7.

It has been my great privilege to know... the most accomplished gardeners, professional and amateur, master and servant, of our time. Hole Memories p. 235.

There were no tube-roses, or anything hot-house or forced.
El. Glyn, Three Weeks ch. 8.

1758. The predicative use of these nouns is often avoided by means of the prop-word *one(s): my visit is a business one.* But this is only possible when they qualify a class-noun. See 1374.

1759. The occasional predicative use of nouns that are frequently found attributively should be distinguished from the predicative use of nouns generally.

It is true that all nouns when used predicatively are apt to lose something of their independent (nominal) character [1]), but ordinary predicative nouns cannot really be considered as adjectives, and never show the other characteristics of adjectives such as attributive use, comparison, etc.

1760. Occasionally, however, a noun whose predicative use is not due to its currency as an attributive word, is hardly less adjectival than those mentioned in 1757.

He is excellent company.

He was master of the situation.

Whether he is thorough master of a subject or quite unacquainted with it, he is equally confident.
Times Lit. 20/3, 24.

But Evelyn is charming. She's such fun.
Cotes, Cinderella ch. 8.

1761. The comparison of these nouns is rare; as a rule

1) On this subject generally see the chapter on *Sentence-Structure.*

they are compared by means of *more* and *most*. Of the following examples the first two only are usual. See 1488 ff.

I'd rather be here than in the swellest London club.
Gissing, The House of Cobwebs [1]).

Few English sportsmen are more proof against weather or more keen to face it than the king. Daily Mail.

The little king of Spain is also shown on stamps, but in a more baby state. Ill. London News [1]).

Johnson clung to them as fondly as if they had been the most pattern hero and heroine of romantic fiction [1]).
Stephen, Life of Johnson.

1762. The formation by means of the suffixes is often meant to have a burlesque effect (*a*), except in the case of intensifying adjuncts when it is necessary to preserve the parallelism (*b*). Compare 1502.

a. He has the darlingest expression.
Punch (Poutsma II p. 3).

b. They were all hero-worshippers, and their heroes for the most part were Toriest of the Tory.
Flora Masson, Brontës, p. 27.

1763. It is also rare for an attributive noun to be separated from its headword (*a*), or to be qualified by an adverb (*b*).

a. Wan worn cheeks, and skeleton and white arms.
Trollope, Dr. Thorne p. 7.

Yet there were moments when he keenly felt his orphan and deserted situation. Bulwer, Eugene Aram.

Java is a model typical dependency.
Edinb. Rev. April 1915.

The millinery and silken part of the shop.
Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. 1 § 2.

Any information contained in abbey or monastic or cathedral or other collegiate registers. Times Ed. S. 10/10, '18.

---

1) Poutsma, Grammar II, I a, p. 2 f.

(It) has a purely biographical, party, or military interest.
Lecky, Hist. of Engl. 18th Cent. I p. VI.

b. He had to content himself with purely missionary tours.
Wakeman, Introd. p. 21.

London hotelkeepers declare that the American visitor is often either lavishly spendthrift or amazingly close.
Daily Mail.

Probably no other class led a life so purely animal.
Lecky, Hist. of Engl. 18th. Cent. VI, 200.

(This) was the more pity as they could not conveniently do without one another. Hawthorne, Wonder Book p. 23.

They were very happy, very absorbed, in this strictly business matter. Bennett, Old Wives' Tale I ch. 5 § 1.

With an absolutely master card in our hand we refused to play it.

Landscapes of a partly real, partly dream-country.
Hardy, Madding Crowd, p. VI.

A number of undeniably standard works. Athenaeum.

There seems no reason to suppose that there will be any difficulty in a friendly arrangement of this purely family matter. Times.

The novel must be what some would call pure and others would call prudish; but what is not, properly considered, either one or the other: it is rather a more or less business proposal (right or wrong) that every writer shall draw the line at literal physical description of things socially concealed.
Chesterton, Victorian Age.

Do not let any too exclusively painting friend of yours persuade you that it is wrong to think of the subject of those two pictures. Ker, Eight. Cent.

1764. In some of the above quotations it is doubtful if the use of the adverb is really due to the adjectival nature of the noun. For such adverbs as *purely, partly, undeniably*, are rather sentence-qualifiers.

1765. The following quotations show that there is some

hesitation in the choice of the adjunct to a converted noun. Naturally, the more usual the conversion is, the greater the tendency to use an adverb. See also 1799.

His wife .... was a fashionable woman, with thorough Whig tastes and aspirations. Trollope, Dr. Thorne p. 3.
Railways established on thoroughly business lines.

1766. When a noun is qualified by two attributive nouns, one of the latter is unavoidably separated from its headword.

Those who don't approve of a middle-aged bachelor country doctor as a hero .... Trollope, Dr. Thorne p. 6.

We may also regard *country doctor* as a compound here. The same explanation accounts for the place of the adjuncts to *medial practitioner* and *small squire* in the following quotations.

Before the reader is introduced to the modest country medical practitioner who is to be the chief personage of the following tale .... ib. p. 1.
The figure of a country small squire .... Essays V, 52.

Nouns as Verbs

1767. Nouns are often used as verbs. Whereas the use of verbs as nouns is rather limited, we may practically say that any noun may be used as a verb [1]).

Thus we have *to cudgel, to powder, to oil, to wall in, to brick up, to bell (the cat), to metal, to provision, to water, to colour, to paper, to match, to fire, to fringe, to cover (a book), to letter (one's linen), to carpet, to gum, to ground, to varnish, to man, to chaperon, to people, to tar, to counterfeit, to mother, to breast (rough weather)*, etc.

Florence Nightingale gave up "society"; Clara Burton had only to give up clerking. Times Lit. 27/1, '16.

1) Unless, of course, there is a corresponding verb, as in *food: to feed*. But *to loan* occurs by the side of *to lend*: The veil was loaned by Mrs. . .

The greengrocer rang the bell just as his mother was going to bath little Billy. Bo-Peep, Cassel 1913.

They were just in time to see the shepherd folding his sheep and lambs.

The ground chosen for lavender growing should slope a little to the south or south-west.

(The room) can conveniently seat about fifty boys.

The Ambassadors were gazing out of the window of the upper room adjoining, and one of them snapshotted me as I went by.

A band of patriots appeared one morning early, surrounding his father's ranche, spearing the watch-dogs and hamstringing a fat cow all in the twilking of an eye, to the cries of "Viva la Libertad!" Conrad, Set of Six.

The footman valets and waits on the guests who do not bring their own valet.

I found myself invalided out of the army.

She liked .... coming to look at them fishing or rabbiting.

I believe the old pony would rat, too, if you put him in the pit.

The inspector motored back to Scotland-yard.

Everything went wrong, and to top up with I got the fever badly.

We have been cowslipping to-day in a little wood dignified by the name of the Hirschwald.

The influence of the prophet and the dreamer over Indian superstition has been fully evidenced in recent instances of Indian warfare.

Father Christmas tip-toed softly to the bedside of the little golden-haired maiden and laid a hand gently on her curls.

I should not like to see you two going off governessing in strangers' houses. Gissing, Grub street.

The wayside brambles were fruiting.

This drink has been doctored. Conrad, Chance II, 221.

It is a piquant list for those who can X-ray it.
Observer, 3/4, '21.

Then the summer vacation came. It began on a Friday; and ... Steve was billed to speak at two political meetings.
Patterson, Compton, p. 126,

Homing shopgirls (i. e. s. going home).

Niven, Porcelain Lady.

The doctor made a thorough revolution in his household, and furnished his house from the ground to the roof completely. He painted — for the first time since the commencement of his tenantcy — he papered, he carpeted, and curtained, and mirrored, and linened, and blanketed, as though a Mrs. Thorne with a good fortune were coming home to-morrow; and all for a girl of twelve years old. Trollope, Dr. Thorne p. 31.

But ought such a neologism as "to leaf [not to loaf] through a book" to be permitted in a Cambridge Literary History, even if produced in Columbia [1])? Times Lit. 17/7, '19.

Conversely certain nouns are corruptly used as verbs. Our author gives as an example *to feature*, to which might be added the equally odious *to stress*, *to sense*, and *to glimpse*. *To collide* and *to obsess* appear to have established themselves, and we fear it would be vain to resist *to aggress* and *to conscript.* [2]). Times Lit. 15/6, '16.

She glimpsed an immense opportunity of impressing George.

Vachell, Spragge p. 53.

1768. On nouns converted into verbs with the pronoun it (*to lord it*, *to queen it*, etc.) see 1002.

On formations like *out-trashing the trashiest* see *English Sounds*, ch. 4 (*Stress*).

Sometimes a group of adjective and noun is used as a verb.

To cold-shoulder a person.

The State (in England) is more concerned with restricting than encouraging enterprise, and the banks wet-blanket it by stiffly adhering to antiquated principles.

Times Lit. 29/10, 14 p. 478/3.

1769. It would be possible to classify these converted nouns according to the meaning of the resulting verb. Some express:

1) i.e. Columbia University.

2) Note that *to obsess*, *to aggress*, and *to conscript* are not nouns used as verbs, but back-formations from *obsession*, *aggression*, *conscription*.

1. *to be*, or *to act as*, or *like*, e.g. *clerking, governessing, to mother, to valet, to lord it.*

2. *to use* as an instrument or *to treat with*, e.g. *to cudgel, to powder, to oil, to tar, to gum, to carpet, to varnish.*

3. *to produce* a result, e.g. *to colour, to letter.*

It is to be feared, however, that such a classification would be of no grammatical value.

Adjectives

Adjectives as Nouns

1770. Attributive adjectives and past participles denoting a quality are often used as nouns to denote the persons possessing the quality, when they are thought of as a whole class. According to 1225 the definite article precedes, but see 1778.

> The poor never lost a right without being congratulated by the rich on gaining something better.
>
> Hammond, Village Labourer, p. 85.

> A nurse looks after the sick, and not after those that are well [1]).

> We know nothing as yet of the prejudices of His Majesty King George V., excepting that up to now he has displayed a prejudice for leading the kind of life for which the shallow and the brainless and the vulgar have no particular admiration.
>
> Academy.

> The wary stuff their ears, the stolid bid her best sayings rebound on her reputation. Meredith, Diana.

> "Ah," thought Kate to herself, "she has begun to feel sorry for me and has begun to stay away as people avoid the unhappy." Allen, Mettle of the Pasture.

---

1) *Well* and *ill*, when referring to health, cannot be used as nouns because they are used predicatively only, i.e. because they are not really adjectives but adverbs.

The fortunate are satisfied with the possession of this world (see 1783).

In the Country of the Blind the One-eyed Man is King.
Wells, Country of the Blind.

Teaching should be determined by the needs of the taught, and not by the propensity of the professor.
Stanley Leathes, Teaching of English.

The more devout of English Churchmen aud English kings had made their pilgrimages to Rome.
Wakeman, Introduction p. 92.

As the articulate voice of the numberless democratic army of the small, the miserable, the lamenting, and the crushed, Tolstoy is characterized as the greatest Christian author since the time of Christ. Times Lit. 5/8, '15.

If there is a joke he would be in it, one of the laughers, not one of the laughed at. Times Lit. 9/12, '15.

The very best of us have a strain of selfishness. The most understanding of us are unable to a nicety to grasp the other person's point of view.
Temple Thurston, City III ch. 15 p. 343.

(He was) Mrs. Yeobright's occasional assistant in the garden, and therefore one of the invited.
Hardy, Return of the Native II ch. 6.

1771. It may be noted that the attributive *present* (*the present king of England*) does not denote a quality but refers to time. Hence it cannot be used as a noun to denote persons. But it can be used as a neuter noun; see 1774.

1772. In enumerations adjectives can be used to denote persons without any qualifier. See 1259 on the absence of the article.

The theatre was full; — crammed to its roof: royal and noble were there. Brontë, Villette ch. 23 p. 261.

Bertie Stanhope, as he was generally called, was, however, popular with both sexes; and with Italians as well as English
Trollope, Barchester ch. 9 p. 70.

Everybody went to the Carshal races. It was one holiday outing in the year which gentle and simple felt bound to honour. Garvice, Lorrie, p. 57.

"With regard to opposition," Dr. Morrison replied, "nothing could be more incorrect. In no other part of the world do German and English work more cordially together than in China." Daily Mail.

Irishmen and Scots, as well as English who had journeyed across the water.... Wakeman, Introd. p. 30.

1773. A converted adjective may be qualified by an adjective or an attributive noun (*a*), or by an adverb of degree (*b*).

a. He sought permission to leave Rome and devote himself to missionary work among the heathen English.
Wakeman, Introd. p. 10.

The "gems," as he called them, were taken to the Dream Cottage, and only shown to the worthy few.
Vachell, Quinneys' p. 103.

Let it be admitted that the literary life is delightful for those who can afford to regard it as its own reward, and profitable enough to the comparative few who share its prizes.
Athenaeum, 30/5, 1914.

She did not take her seat among the village poor.
W. Irving, Sketch-Book.

b. A proper supply of cow's milk to the comparatively poor. Times Lit. 22/6, '16.

1774. Adjectives are also used as neuter nouns with the definite article. When there is no article, as in the last instance, the function seems to be rather adverbial.

In this war men have dared, and achieved, the incredible.
Times W. 1/2, '18.

The Opposition to the Reform Bill is the last stand of conservatism against the inevitable. ib. 18/5, '17.

He (viz. Thomas Hardy in *The Dynasts*) has given us history more real and more true than that of the historians because he has alternated the great with the little.
Times Lit. 19/2, '20.

The old ideas are in a state of flux and mingle strangely with the new in the tossing and whirling of the stream. And the new is often apprehended with the help of the old.

Norcombe Hill was one of the spots which suggest to a passer-by that he is in the presence of a shape approaching the indestructible as nearly as any to be found on earth.
Hardy, Madding Crowd.

Mr. Algernon Blackwood has a perfectly ghoulish taste for the gruesome and the uncanny. Athenaeum, 11/1 1908.

The incidents of the tale, though romantic, do not overleap the bounds of the possible. Academy 26/3 1904.

His acute sense of the declamatory ....
Meredith, Beauchamp's Career.

We want to distinguish between the false and the true.
Oxf. and Camb. Rev. no. 1.

Even the "reviews" in this volume are in the nature of original essays, for Acton's conception of a review was well above the ordinary. Athenaeum 22/2 1908.

Mr. S. has made a gallant and honest attempt to do the impossible. ib. 8/11 '13.

The afterglow of sunset was well over now and the dim of night creeping up. Wells, Country, p. 76.

Act, act in the living Present! Longfellow, Psalm of Life.

It is no doubt a step in the course of nature that the present age prefers its history in the raw. Times Lit. 16/3, 22.

The office was not at its normal.
Bennett, Roll-Call I ch. 6 § 3.

We do not know sufficient of the causes of climatic change at present to forecast the possible fluctuations of climatic conditions that lie before us. Wells, Short History ch. 8.

1775. In contrasts and enumerations there is no article; see 1772.

The whole educational situation in England is passing slowly from bad to worse. Times Ed. S. 6/6, '16.

For well or ill we have a Parliamentary system.
Observer 5/2, 22.

1776. Adjectives used as neuter nouns sometimes take an adverbial qualifier.

We feel that comment is impossible — impossible in presence of the monumentally absurd. Times Lit. 28/1, '15.

They (viz. *The Adventures of Mr. Polly* and *The Pickwick Papers*) belong to the handful of masterpieces of the pure comic. Adelphi I, 2.

1777. In literary English adjectives are also used as neuter nouns in adjuncts with *of*, generally qualifying a pronoun. See also 1460 on *of*- adjuncts.

We presently find it [i.e. the conception of the Deity] not to be a person as man conceives of persons, nor moral as man conceives of moral, nor intelligent, as man conceives of intelligent. Arnold, Lit. and Dogma.

The French Revolution broke out. An electric shock ran through the nations; whatever there was of corrupt and retrograde, and, at the same time, whatever there was of best and noblest, in European society shuddered at the outburst of long-pent-up social fires. Huxley.

All we have willed or hoped or dreamed of good shall exist. Browning, Abt Vogler X.

We have lost not only what there was of absurd in such a method but also what made it expressive and telling. Eng. Rev. Dec. 1913.

In Siberia's wastes
Are sands and rocks.
Nothing blooms of green or soft,
But the snowpeaks rise aloft
And the gaunt ice-blocks. Mangan.

1778. Adjectives are used as nouns to denote a number of persons looked upon as a complete group, but not necessarily the whole class. Hence they can be preceded by other adjuncts than the definite article, e. g. demonstrative or possessive pronouns (*a*). Sometimes the individuals rather than a group are thought of (*b*); this seems to be the case

when they are preceded by numerals (*b*). They are rarely found without any qualifier (*c*), apart from the case mentioned in 1772.

a. His (i. e. Micawber's) mind to him a kingdom was; he was one of those splendid and triumphant poor who have the faculty of capturing, without a coin of money or a stroke of work, that ultimate sense of possessing wealth and luxury which is the only reward of the toils and crimes of the rich. G. Chesterton, Bookman May 1914.

It (viz. the county) is purely agricultural; agricultural in its produce, agricultural in its poor, and agricultural in its pleasures. Trollope, Dr. Thorne p. 1.

He now racked his brain for an excuse to achieve the idle bliss of these charmed few. Sinister Street, p. 274.

We are glad to see also that Lord Kitchener praises de Wet's conduct towards our wounded. Pilot 4/1, 1902.

When it is a question of these English [1]), one can always be sure! Bennet, Old W. Tale III ch. 4 § 5.

b. I saw several injured lying on the Plateau after the charge.

The shelter is a huge establishment which nightly houses about 2,700 homeless poor. Daily News, 28/12, '11.

c. A new class of rich were stepping into the breaches made in the social structure. Einstein, Tudor Ideals p. 133.

1779. The use of adjectives to denote individuals is specially found in technical language (e. g. in lists of casualties: *200 killed 700 wounded*). The same applies to the case mentioned below.

1780. Some adjectives or participles may be used in the function of a singular as well as a plural noun denoting a person: *the deceased, accused.* The conversion is incomplete, however, as the nouns cannot be used with a plural ending.

The medallion, with your mother's picture and yours, lies always on my heart. Every night before I lie down to rest,

1) But the speaker is a Frenchman.

I look at the pictures, and bless both the living and the dead.
Buchanan, That Winter Night ch. 3.

"What is a new star to me?" cried the weeping woman kneeling beside her dead. Wells, Country of the Blind, p. 312.

There are four other accused, namely an engineer, called ...
Daily News.

Wild weather has put a stop for the time being to all preparations for raising the submarine A 3, with her burden of fourteen dead. id. 5/2, '12.

Every day sees a new host of workless walking the streets.
ib. 26/3, 12.

1781. We have the same conversion in the case of names of nations in *-ese* and the adjective *Swiss*. See 826.

1782. The conversion of adjectives into singular nouns denoting persons is also incomplete in that they are never used in the genitive in spoken English. The genitive occurs occasionally in written English.

The funeral of the late Sir Edward Cargill, Bart. was largely attended by the deceased's many relatives and friends.
Hobbes, Some Emotions II, ch. 2.

The excellence of the accused's character.
Times Lit. 23/2, '22.

1783. There are cases that adjectives are used as plural nouns with a plural ending, so that we might speak of these as examples of complete conversion. Still, the use as nouns is often so rare that the linguistic sense more or less distinctly considers them as adjectives. The use is frequent in familiar (often jocular) language. Many cases are due to their use in technical language.

O, don't bother, Maggie! you're such a silly.
George Eliot, Mill on the Floss I ch. 5.

Men were great sillies. Vachell, Quinneys'.

Very well then, I'll take you, my dears.

Our Arab friendlies [1]) declare that....
Pall Mall Gaz. (Oxf. Dict.).

The men in charge of these periodicals were literary stalwarts having the courage of their convictions.
Fortnightly Rev. Oct. 1908.

As the whirl of dust drew nearer to the solitary bluff upon which the two castaways were reposing
Conan Doyle, Study in Scarlet.

For the "grown-ups" there is little that is new just now.
Queen (newspaper).

Heinemann's Latest Sevenpennies.

It furnishes police courts with disorderly drunks.
Morrison, Tales of Mean Streets, p. 9.

A pair of innocents. Browning, Red Cotton Night-cap.

But a tea in the North countries depends for distinction, not on its solids or its savouries, but on its sweets.
H. Ward, Robert Elsmere I ch. 2.

1784. Many of these converted adjectives are chiefly or exclusively used in the plural.

His field of observation was far narrower than that of the fortunates whom duty calls.

You can, however, by incorporating two or three captains of the great army of truisms bequeathed to us by ancient wisdom, fix in your service those veteran old standfasts to check you.

The rout of the Socialists has been intensified and the "Reds" who left the Reichstag 79 strong, and in the confident hope of coming back with increased numbers, will return with no more than 44 seats at their command.

The empty houses are due to the builders going on building whilst the influx of population has not continued at the same

---

1) i. e. a friendly tribe of Arabs. The singular noun *friendly* is specially used as a technical term:

When an inter-club match is called a 'friendly', the inference as to what a league match means is fairly easy. Punch.

rate as in some recent years. The chances are that the empties in Lewisham are no more than they are in any other borough.

We shall be in the dolefuls all the year (i.e. in a doleful state).

The little disagreeables of life.

The number of notables who have passed away during the past week is decidedly above the average.

Everyman 7/3, '13.

1785. We also use the plural of adjectives when referring to things just mentioned; hence in a case where the prop-word *one* is usual. This practice, too, is frequent in technical English, whence it has passed into familiar speech.

Don't put your black shoes on; you can wear your browns to-day.

Playing at draughts: Which will you have, the whites or the blacks?

The number of weekly papers, from the expensive illustrateds down to the cheap tit-bitty papers, is always increasing.

The advantage of light troops in opposition to heavies.

Meredith, Feverel ch. 2.

Adjectives denoting languages

1786. Adjectives can be used as nouns to denote languages.

French is taught as the first foreign language.

The French he speaks would hardly be recognized as such in France.

Honours graduate who has published both translations and original work will undertake translating from the French.

Advt.

Adjectives denoting nationality

1787. Some adjectives form compounds with *-man*, *-woman*, plural *-men*, *-women;* see 804. To denote the whole nation, however, the adjective is used:

There can be little doubt of the Celtic origin of the bulk of the modern French, yet their language is Latin.

Stubbs, Lect. Early Engl. Hist. p. 235.

The Dutch have many colonies.

I met several Frenchmen last night.

1788. But the adjectives are also often used when individuals are referred to.

The race went off without a hitch, the rival crews became excellent friends, and young English and Americans learned to understand and appreciate one another.

No Irish need apply (Advertisement).

The claim seems to us to be just. Certain Irish say that the literature cannot be national because it is not written in Irish. Certain English say that it cannot be more than provincial because it is written in English.

Times Lit. 19/11, '17.

1789. The same applies to *British*, which has no corresponding noun in *-man*.

Pursued by the advancing French and British.

Times W. 30/3, '17.

1790. Many names of nations have adjectives in *-ish* formed from the noun: *Polish, Danish, Jewish*, etc. As in the case of *wood* and *wool* (1729), the noun is used when the name is a compound.

He is of a Polish Jew family settled in the Baltic provinces of Russia. Sweet, Spoken English.

Adjectives denoting colours

1791. Adjectives denoting colours are freely used as nouns to denote the shades of the colour [1]).

1) Of course they may also denote other meanings; what has been said in the preceding sections applies to these adjectives as well. Thus *blue* may be used technically for a blue-coat boy (a scholar of Christ's College), or for a bluestocking, etc. See also *reds* in 1784.

The hair so scant and grizzled in later days was then of a rich brown.

Little streaks and shreds of pink. Wells, Country p. 41.

Only a few leaves had fallen as yet; so that browns, from a pale golden to a dark rich tint, were not too prominent among the greens. Patterson, Compton, p. 84.

Superlatives **1792.** Some cases of the use of the superlative may be considered conversion of adjectives to nouns. This applies especially to the superlatives followed by an *of*-adjunct, and the superlatives with a possessive (with *at* or without). See also the sections on the pronoun *one*.

How beautiful the park looked, filled with the thronging people dressed in their gayest and best.

Burnett, Fauntleroy, last ch.

The worst of this type of report is the unnecessary length.

Times Ed. S. 1/8, '16.

She was the gayest of the gay.

She smiled her sweetest on Mr. Towers.

Trollope, Framley ch. 29.

1793. When *more* and *most* are followed by *of*-adjuncts they may be considered as nouns, but as far as meaning goes *more of, most of* are generally rather adjuncts to the following noun.

As I gazed upon her, steadfastly, yearningly, yet with some reproach, and more of pride than humility, she made me one of the courtly bows which I do so much detest.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 66.

Most of the men wore red waistcoats.

Adjectives as Verbs

1794. Some adjectives are used as verbs, as *to idle, to round, to square, to thin, to pale, to dry, to cool.*

Thus idling her precious time over the common occupations of life.

What rounded the earth and planets?

The daring adventurer rounded the Cape of Good Hope.

The little green apples grew and rounded and yellowed.

Chemically whited bread. Daily Mail.

There wasn't one of us that was fit to speak to him, to look at him, to black his boots. Eng. Rev. Sept. 1913.

The "Lokalanzeiger" specials announce that Zeppelin III. descended safely after flying very low and slowing at the landing place at Nuremberg at a quarter past four.

They gave him a cheer as they passed, with engines slowed down to make the wash from the steamer as slight as possible.

I remember that as the horses slowed to a steep slope, snorting and sweating, we'd turn to smile at each other like two children.

It is something between a fairy-tale and an 'Imaginary Portrait'. The style has quieted; the teller of the tale is hardly discernible. Athenaeum 16/5 1908.

1795. The conversion of adjectives into verbs is not very common because in many cases there are verbs formed from adjectives with suffix *-en;* see 1567, Sometimes both forms exist, as in *to dull, to dullen, to black, to blacken*, but both of these derivatives are rare.

Without laughter in it, the heart is a stone, dullened by a flaw. Temple Thurston, City III ch. 6.

She struggled feebly to quieten her nerves.

Mackenzie, Sylvia and Michael p. 17.

Adjectives as Adverbs

1796. A great many words are used both as adjectives and as adverbs. Usually, however, it is difficult if not impossible to decide if the word is primarily an adjective or an adverb. Hence we must be content to state the fact that the adjective and the adverb have the same form.

to run hard, to speak plain, to look sharp, to grasp tight, etc.
He has repaid me tenfold.
That is a thousandfold worse.

1797. In the comparative or superlative the adjective is often found in an adverbial function.

We can examine the psychology of a writer easier than we can that of any other man.
James Stephen, Eng. Rev. April 1914.
Her heart beat more feebly and slower.
Gaskell, Wives II p. 278.

1798. The form of adjectives in *-ly* sometimes causes them to be mistaken for adverbs.

He thinks as a consequence of this, that it may be possible to live visually in one part of the world, while one lives bodily in another. Wells, Country p. 100.
The walls of the ravine showed ghostly grey, then faintly pink. Dell, Way of an Eagle ch. 5 p. 53.
What he understands, Mr. Bennett understands so thoroughly and can so lively express that the limits to his understanding seem all the more to be deplored. Times Lit. 20/1, '16.

1799. Adjectives are very generally used as adverbs of degree. Sometimes, as in the last three quotations, it is very difficult to say whether a word qualifies the noun or the following adjective.

The door was wide open.
Mr. Poel's performances stand clear outside the comparison.
Pilot.
It is necessary, too, in the novel of conversation to leave much to the imagination of the reader. The average reader has mighty little. Academy.
I was deadly [1]) tired. I was dead tired.

---

1) Compare *mortally wounded.*

It is pretty warm here.

He took precious good care to stay away.

The night was bitter cold. Compare: The weather was rainy and bitterly cold. Pilot 8/3, 1902.

The Right Reverend the Bishop of London.

It is beastly cold to-day.

In summer this is a nice place, but in winter it is jolly cold.

It was pouring with rain, and we drove in two cabs through the horrible dirty streets.

G. Cannan, Round the Corner, p. 93.

A thorough good fellow. Hichens, Ambition ch. 7.

A thorough good Tory. Meredith, Feverel p. 9.

Adverbs

Adverbs as Nouns

1800. Adverbs are sometimes used as nouns. Some of them may take the plural ending.

"Then it isn't only his relationship to Marie that you object to?" said Selma.

"It's the altogether," said Michael with an air of apology.

Sidgwick, Severins p. 63.

Now if I tried to set down at length all the things that happened to me, upon this adventure, every in and out, and up and down, and to and fro, that occupied me...

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 64.

I never could quite understand all the ins and outs of it.

ib. ch. 57.

The ups and downs of life.

Since then.

The road wound with gentle ups and downs between fields whitening to harvest. Elizabeth in Rügen.

I shall allow you to go this once.

Adverbs as Adjectives

1801. Some adverbs are often used as attributive adjectives (*a*). In other cases the use is only occasional (*b*).

a. In the light of after events one cannot but sympathize with what Mrs. A. says. Athenaeum 1/8, 1302.

The above remark does not apply to all.

A forward movement, a backward boy; also many other adverbs in *-ward* [1]): upward, downward, sideward, onward, inward, etc.

Outdoor games, indoor games.

An inside passenger; the off side.

I wonder whether she has taken a right down dislike to me.

Mrs. Manfield's father had been a highly intelligent, cultivated, charming and well-off man. Hichens, Ambition ch. 2.

She is an out-and-out Republican. Times Lit. 23/3, '17.

b. Travelling from heart to heart he drew from each the deep-down sweetness. Sinister Street p. 615.

A monotonous betweenwiles kind of talk.
Meredith, R. Feverel.

The thrice recurrence of this event.
id. Beauchamp's Career.

In the dry, aloof masculinity of his attitude towards Hannah.
Bennett, Leonora.

.... feigning an aloof quiescence. ib.

1802. The predicative use of some adverbs is so common that it cannot be called conversion (see 1708); *my father is out*, *he is well-off*, etc. See 1831. Predicative use of an adverb of degree is exceptional.

"She's very American," he added.

"I think Americans like being very," I said, "and I don't think they can help it." Cotes, Cinderella ch. 8.

1803. The group of attributive adverb and noun is sometimes equivalent to a compound, as in *up-train*, *down-train*.

1) On the other hand we say *an upstairs room; an out- of- doors man.*
Vachell, Quinneys' p. 208.
Note that the adverbs are also found in the form *-wards.*

Adverbs as Conjunctions

1804. Adverbs are occasionally used as conjunctions. See note to 1806.

Oh! now I know my man, you may be sure I won't waste a word on him. Meredith, Beauchamp's Career.

Directly he noticed this he hurried down to the strange orchid. Wells, Country of the Blind, p. 57.

Adverbs as Verbs

1805. Adverbs are occasionally used as verbs.

He up and awayed to London [1]). L. Malet, Sir R. Calmady.

As we neared Binz the road runs up close to the sea. Eliz. in Rügen.

Tuesday will be too late, for by now on that day 50 per cent. of the men of Derbyshire will have downed tools.

He had never been "outed," as he expressed it, before. Vachell, Quinneys' p. 39.

Prepositions

1806. In careless or dialectal English some prepositions are used as subordinating conjunctions.

I cannot manage to get them the cottage without you go with us. Marryat, Children of the New Forest, ch. 2.

The intellectual existence and discourses of a Socrates cannot be understood, except when viewed in connection with the sensual and common existence and carnal wisdom of Aristophanes, any more than the death of the one can be understood without we also understand the popular thought and feeling delineated to us by the other.

Shorthouse, John Inglesant ch. 25 p. 289.

---

1) See 71 on the group-verbs.

I never see wasps without I recall Devon — dear Devon.
Niven, Porcelain Lady, p. 201.

He had liked the isolation that had followed, but now he thought that isolation could be of little use to a man, except he could spring from it to greater freedom and a purer joy in his work. G. Cannan, Round the Corner, p. 317.

She strolled about the garden with him, gathering fresh flowers, meanwhile, to deck the drawing-room against Mrs. Hamley should come down. Gaskell, Wives I ch. 7.

Well, this tree was a branch hanging right over the pond; and I want to crawl along it, like he did.
Montgomery, Misunderstood ch. 3.

Of the above examples *except* and *like* are far more frequent among educated speakers than *without* or *against*. Such conjunctions as *after*, *before*, are not to be looked upon as cases of conversion, for to the speaker of present-day English they are conjunctions quite as much as prepositions or adverbs.

Sentences

1807. Sentences are sometimes used as nouns (*a*) or as verbs (*b*), but this conversion is mostly occasional only.

a. There's Mrs. N. and young what do you say his name is?
Sweet, Spoken, English p. 95.

His 'I don't know's' are a perfect nuisance.

b. No London gentleman asks questions. Lord!
If you went "What's your job?" -ing down our way,
You'ld soon be smelling someone's fist, I reckon.
New Numbers I, 9.

In a few cases the conversion has become *usual: reach-me-down* [1] 'ready-made garment', *pick-me-up* 'a refreshing drink'.

1) Originally used attributively only, as in *a reach-me-down coat.*

OTHER METHODS OF WORD-FORMATION

1808. Besides the three chief methods of forming new words (derivation, composition, conversion) English occasionally uses others:

1. shortening.
2. back-formation.
3. repetition.
4. onomatopœia.

Shortening **1809.** When words are shortened it is generally the unstressed syllables that are lost: *photo* from *photograph*, *bike* from *bicycle*, *pub* from *public-house*, *lab* from *laboratory*, *the Lib-Labs* from *the Liberal and Labour (members)*, *pram* from *perambulator* etc.

Sometimes, however, a stressed syllable gets lost: *bus* from *omnibus*, *cycle* from *bicycle*, *prep.* from *preparation*, *exam.* from *examination*, *Zoo* from *Zoological Gardens*, *prom* from *promenade concert* [1]).

1810. Shortening occurs chiefly in technical or special languages; thus *lab*, *prep.*, and *exam.* are chiefly used in school slang; *the Lib-Labs* was a term in political slang. Similarly in Vachell's *Spragge's Canyon* describing life in California we find the local *comber* for *beach-comber* , *brush* for *brushwood*,

1) *I adore the Proms. Don't you?* Bennett, Roll-Call I ch. 2 § 3.

stage for *stage-coach*. In Alec Waugh's *Loom of Youth*, describing life in a Public School, the following shortenings occur: *pros* (for *professionals*), *maths* (for *mathematics*), *pi* (for *pious*), *sec.* (for *second*), *pres* (for *prefects*), *gym.* (for *gymnasium*). Note that in all these cases of school-slang it is the first syllable, whether stressed or not, that is used.

1811. In nursery-language shortened words often have the diminutive ending [-ĭ] added to them:

Hanky for *handkerchief*, *comfy* for *comfortable*, *pinny* for *pinafore*.

See also 1818.

1812. When shortened words come to have meanings which are not shared by the longer words, the pairs become independent words which are known to be connected to the historical student only. Examples of such complete differentiation are *size* and *assize*, *tend* and *attend*, *mend* and *amend*.

1813. In this connection mention may be made of the symbolic words, i.e. words that have arisen through abbreviated spellings, as *£ s. d.* [el es di); *viz.* [vìz], although these letters are usually read [neimlĭ] *namely*; *per cent.*; *M. A.*; *B. A.* [1]); etc. See *English Sounds*, ch 7.

Back-Formation **1814.** A word like *burglar* may seem to be formed from a verb, just as *meddler* is formed from to *meddle*. Hence *burglar* has given rise to a verb *to burgle*. In the same way *darkling* formed with the adverb-suffix *-ling* has given rise to a new verb *to darkle*. A combination like *Mafeking-night* might suggest a verbal form [mæfəkĭŋ]: hence the verb *to maffick*. Compare also *to muth* in 1602.

This process of word-formation is called *back-formation*.

---

1) Hence also *an M. A.* [ən em ei] as well as *a M. A.* [ə mastər əv ats].

1815. Back-formation is also instanced by the following quotations. See also the footnote to p. 106.

A Messenger from Bolshevy (i. e. the country governed by the Bolshevists). Heading of an article. Times Lit. 11/3, '20.

Martha caretakes [1]) a decrepit City-warehouse.
Merriman, Moneyspinner T. p. 183.

Martha has house-cleaned [2]) her room for Tilly's reception.
ib. p. 191.

1816. By a similar (not identical) process words like *thermometer*, *barometer* suggest a suffix *-ometer* [omĭtər], which gives rise to *speedometer*.

The new words in the following quotations are similarly formed.

There are some good yarns among them, told with a certain literary grace, and with a fine sense of detachment from the realities of shore-going [3]) life. Athenaeum 8/7, 1905.

As spring drew on, the depression of spirits to which she was subject began to grasp her again, and to crush her with a day-and-night-mare.
Miss Martineau in Gaskell, Life of C. Brontë ch. 23 p. 368.

Dearlove is too delightful and whimsical a character to drift lightly away into the reader's forgettory [4]).
Academy 28/4, 1906.

Most of his schoolmates or lifemates.
Hawthorne, Scarlet Letter.

Why has a clerical wit of the younger school coined the term "unctimony" to describe his heartiness of manner [5])
Times Lit. 5/10, '22.

Also *gaselier*, *electrolier* on the model of *chandelier; seascape*

1) From *caretaker*. 2) From *house-cleaning*. 3) From *seagoing*.
4) Compare *factory*, *laboratory*, *dormitory*, *repository*, etc.
5) On the analogy of *sanctimony*.

on the model of *landscape; snipocracy* on the model of *aristocracy* [1]), *squirearchy* on the model of *hierarchy*.

Repetition

1817. The sections on *Composition* have shown the close connection between *Sentence-Structure* and *Word-formation*, and the arbitrary, though unavoidable, character of the separation of these two chapters of grammar. The same observation may be made with regard to repetition as a means of sentence-structure and of word-formation. It seems inconvenient in this case, however, to deal with the subject in two places, and repetition as a means of sentence-structure will therefore be treated in this chapter which deals with wordformation.

1818. On the whole it may be said that repetition serves the purposes of emphasis. This is very clear when the predicative verb is repeated.

Scrooge went to bed again, and thought, and thought, and thought it over and over and over, and could make nothing of it. Dickens, Christmas Carol st. II.

In his hands he turned and turned a piece of china. Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 1.

The more he knows and knows, or at any rate learns and learns — the more, in other words, he establishes his saturation... Henry James, Times Lit. 19/3, 14.

And a disturbing intermittent sense of a general responsibility increased and increased in her. Wells, Wife of Sir I. Harman ch. 5 § 6.

But all this time Mrs. Jerome Jarvis was talking, talking. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 9.

That week, I could do little more than dream and dream, and rove about. Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 17.

---

1) From *snip* a nickname for a tailor. The word occurs frequently in Meredith's *Evan Harrington*.

1819. Other parts of a sentence may also be repeated, naturally: *He said it again and again. It continued for months and months.* It will be noticed that in this case the repetition does not affect the whole sentence, as in the case of 1818, but only the part repeated. The same observation applies to repetition in the form of a cognate object: *Dick chanced to say his say in a very sharp telling sort of way.* Also in the case of the intensifying adjuncts discussed in 1450 ff. (*a Catholic of the Catholics, the gayest of the gay*), and in the comparative of graduation (*The firing grew fainter and fainter*). We may also instance constructions of the type *of the earth, earthy* (see 1643) and the similar construction in the following quotations.

> Enrico was of the Germans, German.
>
> Lyall, Knight-Errant ch. 1.
>
> The scenes or associations with which they connect themselves, are of England, English. Ward, Dickens ch. 4.

1820. Repetition may imperceptibly lead to word-formation: *to talk* (*write*) *about it and about it* is now used without reference to any noun (formal *it*).

> Must we magazine it and review at this sickening rate for ever? Shall we never again read to be *amused?* but to judge, to criticise, to talk about it and about it?
>
> Lamb, Readers against the Grain.

Closely related to this repetition of words is the formation of new words by repeating one or more syllables, generally with the vowel-alternation i, æ. The repetition in these words (mostly verbs) serves to express repeated action; they express sounds in the majority of the cases, and are often onomatopoetic (1825). See also 172.

> the tip-tappings of the tiny pink claws of the pigeons as they milled on the floor. Porcelain Lady p. 96 (ch. V).

A pitter-patter of feet that spoke anxiety followed the elastic steps of Cromarty. ib. p. 143 (ch. 10).

He had nearly finished his fiddle-faddling arrangements. Vachell, Brothers II ch. 3 p. 37.

She lay back on the bed in a semitrance soothed by the unending bibble-babble all round. Mackenzie, Sylvia and Michael p. 21.

The familiar rigmarole of a hundred such tellings droned its course accompanied by the flip-flap, flip-flap of the cards. ib. p. 47.

1821. In the following cases repetition serves to intensify the idea.

.... all of which is skimble-skamble thought in slipshod language, a confusion of platitude, falsity, and nonsense stark but inarticulate. Times Lit. 4/6, '14.

What's the use of trying to flim-flam [1]) me? Vachell, Quinneys' p. 24 (ib. p. 218.

He could be relied on to see the facts of the situation without any of that 'flimflam' with which imagination is accustomed to surround them. Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 34 p. 430.

1822. The same repetition, also often with vowel- and consonant-variation, is frequent in nouns. It may express repetition (chiefly of sounds) or serve to emphasize the idea. Such words are *clap-trap*, *sing-song*, *tip-top*, *riff-raff*, *wishy-washy*, *harum-scarum*, *roly-polly* [2]), *hurry-burry*, *hurry-scurry*, *helter-skelter*, *namby-pamby*, *narrow uneven alleys leading to higgledy-piggledy workshops and kilns* (Bennett, Clayhanger I ch. 2 § 5), *a crowded higgledy-piggledy of plum-coloured walls and chimneys* (id. These Twain I ch. 1). How little this method of 'word-formation' can be separated from the

1) to deceive.

2) Perhaps this is rather a nursery-word (1823).

repetition of words discussed in 1818 f. seems to be clearly shown by the following instance.

> It's always best to smile and try to look on the bright side of things and not be grumbly-grumbly.
>
> Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 37.

In nursery talk repetition is frequent, generally with variation of consonants or vowels and the diminutive suffix [-ĭ]. These words are all nouns, and the repetition serves the purpose of endearment.

> to-toes, handy-dandy, nosy-posy, piggy-wiggy, leggy-peggy.

A nursery word like *to kiff-cough* shows a vowel-variation (like *ping-pong*) which is probably onomatopoetic (see 1825), like the other cases.

1823. It may finally be observed that repetition may serve other purposes. In such a sentence, as *There are photographs and photographs* the repetition serves the purpose of distribution, and this can hardly lead to the formation of new words. The distributive meaning is also clear in the following quotation.

> If any shipbuilders or trade unionists, whose conscience is perfectly clear, feel unjustly aspersed and aggrieved, let them remember that there are shipbuilders and shipbuilders, trade unionists and trade unionists, just as there are newspapers and newspapers, though they are commonly lumped together by critics as "the Press". Times W. 29/3, 1918.

Portmanteau Words

1824. We may also mention here the so-called portmanteau-words in Lewis Caroll's *Alice in Wonderland*, such as *galumphing*, a combination of *galoping* and *triumphing* [1]). Such words are naturally nonce-words,

1) See the interesting note by R. Withington in Mod. Lang. Notes 37, 6 (June 1922).

even though they may occasionally be repeated by way of conscious or unconscious quotation.

> You went galumphing over that gravel.
> Daily Mail Aug. 1911.

A few words are in more or less regular use: *Eurasian*, *Bakerloo*, *electrocute*, *squarson* (*squire* and *parson*), *gerrymander*[1]).

Onomatopoeia **1825.** Several of the words formed by means of repetition are onomatopoetic, such as *pitter-patter* of feet. Other examples, without repetition, are *whizz*, *buzz*, *plop*. New-formations of this kind are rare.

> (He looked) at the gas-burners which exploded one after another with a little plop under the application of the maid's taper. Bennett, Old W. Tale IV, ch. 1 § 1.

1) From *Gerry*, name of a governor of Massachusetts, and the second part of *salamander:* 'to manipulate a constituency unfairly so as to secure disproportionate influence at an election for some party or class'.

THE SENTENCE

SENTENCE-STRUCTURE

The Simple Sentence

1826. The term 'sentence' in syntax resembles the term 'syllable' in phonetics: the 'practical person' finds them perfectly easy to understand, whereas scholars have not yet succeeded in agreeing about a definition.

An English sentence generally consists of two parts, the subject and the predicate. It is convenient to treat this as the normal type of English sentence, and to treat deviations as exceptional at the end of the chapter.

1827. A word may show its function as a subject by its form, as in the case of some personal pronouns, by its agreement in person and number with the predicate (see below the chapter on *Concord*) and by its place (see *Order of Words*).

As to meaning we may say that the subject is the image which first presents itself to the speaker's mind. But it happens not unfrequently that the word which is the subject in this sense (the psychological subject), is not the word agreeing with the predicate in person or number (the grammatical subject).

When the object of a verb is the psychological subject it can be made the grammatical subject by means of the passive voice. In other cases the construction with *to have* and an accusative-with-past participle is frequently used.

In grammar we mean by subject the grammatical subject unless the contrary is stated.

1828. The chief part of the subject of a sentence is usually a noun: *My father* has gone home [1]).

But all other parts of speech may occur as subjects. In that case they are sometimes called noun-equivalents.

He has gone home.
To convince him is impossible.
Going to bed was out of the question.
Impossible is a word you use far too frequently.
Black suits you best.
Eleven years old does this sort of thing very easily.
de Morgan, Vance ch. 15 p. 135.

1829. The chief part of the predicate is usually a finite form of a verb with full meaning (*verbal predicate*). Sentences with a verbal predicate are called *verbal sentences*.

My father *has gone* home.
The man *came* in time.
You *can go*.

The original meaning of finite verb, i. e. a verbal form showing number and person, does not conveniently apply to present English, which, apart from irregular verbs, has only one single form that really answers to this definition. If the term is to be retained at all, it must be taken to mean a verbal form that serves as the predicate: finite verb thus becomes a synonym of predicative verb.

Verbal sentences express actions, occurrences, and states, which may be represented as facts, commands, wishes, or possibilities [2]). The reasons for considering such groups as

1) On the genitive as a subject, see 896.

2) The meaning of predicative verbs is fully discussed in the sections on adverb adjuncts.

has gone, will go, is going as forms of the verb *to go* have been discussed in the first chapter (57 ff.). On such combinations as *can go*, see 320. The predicative verb may also be subordinate in meaning to an accompanying infinitive with *to*: see 340. A very clear case of this is the verb *to seem*, as illustrated in the following quotations.

> We seem to understand all and so to pardon all.
> Times Lit. 14/9, 22.
>
> She seemed to feel, after a bare look at Diggory Venn, that the man had come on a strange errand.
> Hardy, Return of the Native I ch. 10.

It should be noted that in these cases *seem* has a special meaning: *we seem* means *we seem to ourselves; she seemed* is *she seemed to herself*. If *seem* refers to the ideas of others than the subject, it has more of an independent meaning: *He seems to approve of your plan*. In this case *seem* might be interpreted as meaning *to produce the impression*.

1830. The chief part of the predicate may be a noun [1]) or pronoun [2]) or an adjective (*nominal predicate*). In this case subject and predicate are connected by *to be*, or by a verb that expresses a modification of *to be*. The chief of these verbs are *to seem, to appear, to become, to grow*, and their equivalents. Sentences with a nominal predicate are called *nominal sentences*.

The copula *to be* serves in the first place to connect the subject and the predicate. It does not contribute anything to the thought of the sentence, but it makes the sentence similar in form to the verbal sentence, which is the predominating type in English. The copula also makes it possible, however, to express distinctions of time and modality. The use of the copulas *to seem, appear, become*, etc. further enables us to express some other relations between subject and predicate.

---

1) On the genitive as a nominal predicate, see 895.

2) On the oblique cases of personal pronouns in predicative use, see 984.

You are right.
He has been a vice-president.
Does it seem right to you?
He has grown a big boy.

1831. Although the nominal predicate is oftenest a noun or adjective, it may have other forms. Many adverbs, especially such as denote place, may be used predicatively (*a*); prepositional groups are also found in this function (*b*).

a. The stove is out.
Master is not up yet.
John is quite well again.
b. Is Mr. Jones at home?
The dog was at fault.
That remark is not to the point.

In sentences like *I have been to London; My brother is here; He is in the garden;* we may explain *to be* as a verb with full meaning (626 f.). But in reality its function is felt to be the same as that of *to be* with a predicative noun or adjective.

1832. Some verbs, although not usually void of meaning, are occasionally used as copulas. See also 522 f. on the *Participle*.

It is a notorious fact that, caught in the whirlwind of passion, nations have waged wars which stand condemned at the bar of common sense. Everyman.

This political turmoil did not hinder the progress of art and literature for which Athens in the third century stood pre-eminent. Goodspeed, Hist. p. 234.

Kingslake's prediction came true. Athenaeum 21/3, 1908.

The Kpelle [1]) stand in fear of demons. Times Lit. 25/5, 22.

"That you, Samuel?" The voice came low.
Bennett, Old W. Tale II ch. 5 § 1.

1) A negro tribe in Liberia.

When the empire (i.e. the Roman Empire) went rotten it began at the top, and it took centuries to corrupt the man behind the spear. Conan Doyle, Magic Door p. 67.

Perhaps *to play* and *to form* could also be interpreted in this way; but see 1866.

Though unused to play the schoolmaster, he taught me to read the small print.
Mary Lamb in Selected Short Stories I.
These plants form a class by themselves. II p. 6.

1833. When the nominal predicate is an adjective it expresses a quality or state of the subject. When it is a noun it may express the class to which the subject belongs; this is not always easy to distinguish from a quality. The predicative noun may also express identity.

In such cases it is occasionally difficult to say which is the subject, which the predicate. The answer may be supplied by considering the concord (*a*). Moreover the first noun must generally be considered the subject, simply because it is first. But as inversion is possible we must sometimes decide the question by considering which idea must be supposed to have been first in the speaker's mind (*b*). It should be remembered, however, that this method serves to find the psychological rather than the grammatical subject.

a. Our perusal and our enjoyment are our watching of the growth of the pile ... H. James, Times Lit. 19/3, '14.

The quarrel does not take any form that it took in his day. The enemy is not priests or Kings, but a doctrine more obsolete and barbaric. Times Lit. 24/2, '16.

b. His study was his reception-room.

Sir Douglas decided to seize the occasion which he discerned and to strike at once. Surprise was the essence of the plan. Times W. 8/3, '18.

A chieftain's daughter seemed the maid.
Scott, Lady of the Lake I, 19.

1834. When nominal sentences express the identity of subject and predicate the function of the predicative noun is distinctly that of a noun: The president is Mr. Asquith. The same is the case when the predicative noun expresses the class to which the subject belongs: My brother is a lawyer.

When, however, the predicative noun expresses a quality of the subject it is distinctly adjectival in function (*a*). The adjectival function of these predicative nouns is often shown grammatically in various ways: by the absence of the article before singular class-nouns (*b*), by the use of adverbs as qualifiers (*c*), by the absence of concord of number (*d*), or by the identity in meaning between the noun- or adjective-form of a predicative word (*e*).

a. Littledale said his wife was great fun.
H. James, Daisy Miller p. 134.

The title of Lord Ilchester's book is a misnomer.
Times Lit. 5/2, '20.

b. "Yes, my pater's Archdeacon," said David.
"I wish mine was," said Maddox. "But I've got some right here. I came down two days ago to stay with my uncle, who's Bishop". Benson, David Blaize p. 135.

c. The bookseller was very much a gentleman.
Gissing, Ryecroft XIII.

No one of the party was botanist enough [1]) to tell whether...
Sweet, Element. 96.

She is quite a lady.

d. Well, the Committee are at once alarmist and hopeful.
Times Lit. 28/7, '21.

The inn looked as if its beds were feather and its butter bad. Eliz. in Rügen.

Undoubtedly the best dancers in the hotel, especially among the men, were American. O. Browning, Times W. 6/6, 13.

---

1) *Enough* and *much* can qualify a noun (*much money, money enough*) but only if the noun allows of the idea of quantity.

e. He explained that, though he was Swiss by birth, he had lived so long in Paris, and felt so really French, that on the day war was declared he volunteered.

Times Lit. 16/10, '19.

They are both Englishmen. They are both English.
His wife is a Frenchwoman. His wife is French.

See 876; also 1133 on the relative *which* for persons; 1292 on the absence of the article; 1344 f. on *no*; and 1755 ff. For the use of verbal nouns as nominal predicates, see the first chapter.

Formal Subject **1835.** The subject may be a meaningless word. Such is the pronoun *it* as the subject of impersonal verbs. This use is limited to a small number of verbs which denote phenomena of the weather (*it rains, snows*, etc.), and to nominal sentences with the verb *to be* or another copula (*It was sunset when John arrived*), to express time. English thus makes little use of the impersonal constructions; it has no impersonal passive at all.

It is also used when the 'real' subject follows the predicate in the form of a verbal noun (infinitive or gerund) or a clause; see *Personal Pronouns*, and 1967 ff. It may be added that verbal nouns as subjects may precede the predicate, as shown in the respective sections on these verbal forms. See also 2006.

1836. We often find the introductory particle *there*, which is phonetically different from the adverb *there* [ðɛər] by its weak stress [ðər].

It occurs when the subject is a noun both in sentences with the verb *to be*[1]) (*a*) or a verb of similar weakened meaning (*b*) and in sentences with a passive verb (*c*).

1) Not necessarily the copula.

a. There have been many people to inquire how you were.

That afternoon there was a search for Sophia whom no one had seen since dinner. She was discovered by her mother, sitting alone and unoccupied in the drawing room.
Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 3 § 3.

Under such conditions, the most elaborate system of ventilation might well have been at fault; but here there was no ventilation [1]). Strachey, Eminent Victorians p. 129.

There was a violent storm, a shower of snow, a draught, etc.

b. There once lived a king who had one daughter.

c. There was very little tea eaten that evening [2]).
Montgomery, Misunderstood.

The introductory *there* is occasionally found with the same verbs when the subject is an infinitive, although the usual construction in this case is the provisional *it*.

There remains for me to apologize for the delay in the appearance of this volume. Sinister Street, Epilogue.

For *there* in gerund- and participle-constructions, see the sections on these verbals.

1837. The introductory *there* also occurs in sentences with an active verbal predicate with full meaning.

On the opposite side of the house, several hundred yards away, the country turnpike ran; and from this there reached them the rumbling of many vehicles, hurrying in close procession out of the nearest town.
Allen, Bride of the Mistletoe p. 48.

1838. The introductory *there* resembles the provisional

1) When the sentence opens with an adverb, the introductory *there* can be dispensed with.

Outside, in the snow, were a brougham, twin horses, twin men in yellow, and a little crowd. Bennett, Card ch. 1 § 3.

2) For examples of passive sentences, see 265 f.

it [1]); this explains its repetition in sentences of the type. *There is a library in my house, isn't there?* See 609 ff. The introductory *there* differs in not showing concord in number with the finite verbal form, which agrees with the following subject [2]).

The function of the introductory *there* seems to be: to prevent the grammatical subject from preceding the predicate when it is not at the same time the psychological subject. The sentences in § 265 open with the psychological subject and end with what is grammatically the subject but in meaning the predicate.

Adjuncts of the Subject and Predicate

1839. We have seen that the chief part of the subject is a noun or a noun-equivalent; the chief part of the predicate may be either a verb of full meaning or a noun or adjective.

Both the subject and the predicate may be qualified by adjuncts.

Adjuncts qualifying a noun or noun-equivalent are called *attributive adjuncts*. They may qualify a noun in the subject or in the predicate.

Adjuncts not qualifying a noun are called *adverb adjuncts*.

Some adjuncts do not belong to either class exclusively, because they refer to a noun as well as to a verb. They may refer to the verbal predicate and the subject *(He lived as a hermit, I won't be called a fool by anybody)*, or the verbal predicate and a noun in the predicate *(You shouldn't call John a coward; He painted the door a dark green)*. Such parts of a sentence are called *predicative adjuncts*.

The infinitive, gerund, and participle, as adjuncts have been fully discussed in the first volume.

---

1) Compare similar pairs of pronoun and adverb: the anaphoric *it* (and *that*) and *so;* the relative *which* and *as*.

2) But not invariably: see 2025.

Attributive Adjuncts

Form **1840.** Attributive adjuncts may be:

1. adjectives, including the verbal and pronominal adjectives, and the numerals. For the last two instances, see 1801.

A *wealthy* man. *Carved* wood. *This* book. *The* book. *Your* book. A *wooden* pavement. The *then* king. A *stay-at-home* man.

2. adverbs.

The man *there*. Hang your hat on the peg *over there*. The day *before*. The day *after*.

3. genitives of nouns (882 ff.).

A *man's* house. *Shakespeare's* plays. *To-day's* paper.

4. a noun (or noun-equivalent) with a preposition.

A man *of wealth*. A pavement *of wood*. A ring *of iron*. The house *of a man*. The plays *of Shakespeare*. The last house *in this street*. A letter *from my niece*. A man *like my brother*. It was not a very wise proceeding *on the young man's part* (Stevenson, Selected Short Stories II p. 334).

Also groups with the post-genitive and post-possessive.

A book *of my father's*. That boy *of yours*.

5. a noun (or noun-equivalent) in the common case without a preposition. See *Conversion*, also 876.

An *iron* ring.
The *planet* Neptune.
A *dozen* pencils.
The *word* banana is of foreign origin.

Meaning **1841.** The relations between attributive adjuncts and their headwords are various. The meanings of pronouns, and of nouns, whether in the genitive or common case, with a preposition or without, have been treated in the chapters on *Pronouns*, *Case of Nouns*, *Prepositions*, *Conversion*.

One of the most important classes of attributive adjuncts, the adjectives, have not been treated in the first part and must be discussed here. Before discussing the adjective, it may be convenient to add some remarks on the attributive use of adverbs and nouns.

Adverbs **1842.** The attributive use of adverbs preceding nouns has been treated as conversion (1801); it is quite exceptional. But adverbs denoting place and time are freely used to qualify a *preceding* noun; see 1840, 2.

> I have got some rooms for us in that little house up there on the terrace [1]). Sweet Spoken English p. 83.
>
> The tone throughout is clear, calm, impartial — in a word, scientific. Times Lit. 25/5, 22.

Nouns **1843.** The attributive use of nouns has been treated in the chapters on *Prepositions* (especially *of*) and on *Conversion:* 1715 ff.

It has also been shown that in combinations of nouns with nouns by means of the preposition *of* it is occasionally difficult to decide which is the headword, which the adjunct (1463 f.). The same difficulty arises in the case of nouns that are combined without a preposition. Thus in *King Edward* it is clear that *king* is subordinated, both in meaning and in stress, to the headword *Edward*. But in *the gasfitter Charles* is it rather the proper name *Charles* that is subordinated in meaning, though not in stress, to the headword *gasfitter*. This difference in relation between the parts of the group *King Edward*, and the group *the gasfitter Charles* accounts for the difference of stress, and also for the use of the article (1275 ff.).

It is also difficult to say which is the headword in such

---

1) Note the weak stress of the adverb: -ɑɹ ːðɛə.

groups as *the word banana;* the context must decide it: in the sentence *You are mistaking the word bandana for the word banana*, *bandana* and *banana* are adjuncts; but they are headwords in this sentence: *The words bandana and banana may resemble each other, the things bandana and banana are very different.*

1844. When a person or thing is denoted by two nouns it is often difficult to say which is the headword. We usually call the second an *apposition* of the first.

Edward VII, king of England.
Mr. George Smith, the publisher.
Charles, the gasfitter.
He could remember the day, not so long ago, when Pinker, the grocer, called him "My lad." Vachell, Quinneys' ch. 1.
His lifelong friend, the great painter Clarkson Stanfield. Ward, Dickens p. 11.

These appositions differ from the combinations in 1843 by the pause between the two nouns, and the explanatory character of the second noun. They resemble such combinations as *William the Conqueror*, *Nixon the hatter*, but these have no pause.

We also have an apposition rather than an adjunct in such cases as *Burns as Musician*, and *as* is to be looked upon as a conjunction, rather than as a preposition; see 989 ff.

See also 1275, 1474 and 2129.

Adjectives **1845.** Attributive adjectives are chiefly used to express a quality of the following noun [1]). But they also frequently express a feeling connected with the noun: *a delightful day* may mean a day of beautiful weather but

1) Of course a noun may do the same thing: *a man of sense* is *a sensible man*, *a man of wealth* is *a wealthy man.*

also a day when the speaker was very happy. Similarly *happy* and *uneasy* are used in the following examples.

> Yet this was no inconsiderable work for seven short years.
> Wakeman, Introd. p. 18.
> She had often spoken of the little, happy stream to Evan.
> Meredith, Harrington ch. 23 p. 235.
> It was an uneasy thought. Sinister Street p. 1006.

Also: *a pleasant surprise, a sad event, merry days.*

1846. *Possible* is a sort of modal adjective in the following quotations.

> It was an occasion, I felt — the prospect of a large party — to look out at the station for others, possible friends and even possible enemies, who might be going.
> James, Sacred Fount ch. 1.
> In the Caucasus, as in Finland, she (viz. Russia) has adopted the steam-roller policy, and by crushing national aspirations has estranged possible loyalists.
> Westminster Gazette 16/6, 1906.

1847. Sometimes the relation between noun and adjective is less simple [1]). We may distinguish the following cases:

1. the noun is closely connected in meaning and in form with a verb.

In this case the adjective has a function very similar to that of an adverb.

> a regular contributor; frequent complaints; a frequent visitor; a small eater; a good teacher; careful reading; fast walking.
> He was a very early riser, a hard student, a great smoker and tea-drinker; a man of splendid physique, tall and burly, with superabundant health. Dict. Engl. Church s.v. Burnet.

---

1) In the arrangement of this section I owe much to the treatment in Jespersen's Modern English Grammar.

The slowest eater at the second freshmen's table had nervously left half his savoury. Sinister Street p. 518.

If I had proposed to any servant of mine to assume that coat of many colours, I should have received an immediate month's warning. Hole, Memories p. 33.

Examples are very frequent with names of agents (most of them ending in *-er, -or*), and with nouns (or gerunds) in *-ing*. See the sections on the *Adjuncts of the Gerund*. It may be added that the close connection between noun and verb is shown by the frequent use of the same preposition (1444 f.).

In poetry adjectives with an adverbial meaning are used even when the noun is not formally related to a verb. An example is *casual eyes* in Robert Southey's *Scholar:*

My days among the Dead are past
Around me I behold,
Where'er these casual eyes are cast.
The mighty minds of old.

2. the noun is closely connected with an adjective.

In this case also the adjective has partly an adverbial function.

A perfect stranger; comparative wealth, luxury.

A period of comparative repose. Life of Ainger p. 115.

We also find adjectives as adjuncts to adjectives converted into nouns (*the comparative few:* 1773), but the adverb is more usual here, to express degree. Hence the difference between *the hopeless poor* and *the hopelessly poor*.

He uses the language, enjoys the emotions, attains to the discipline, and exercises the convinced power of the spiritually free. Times Lit. 3/12, 14 p. 533/3.

To the relatively poor (who are so much worse off than the poor absolutely) education is in most cases a mocking cruelty. Gissing, New Grub Street ch. 3.

3. the noun and the adjective form what is in some respects a compound.

> Bishops and abbots became *large* land-owners in right of their sees and abbacies. Many of their parish clergy became *small* landowners through the gifts of benefactors to their churches. On these ecclesiastical lands lived a large labouring population in various degrees of prosperity.
>
> Wakeman, Introduction p. 95.

Compare also the genitive-groups, like *a ladies' man* (902 ff).

4. the adjective expresses the agent of the action referred to by the headword.

In this case the function of the adjective is the same as that of a subjective genitive, or of an adjunct with *of* [1]).

> We were finally forbidden by *parental* authority to continue our importations. Hole, Memories p. 221.

1848. In many cases the relation of noun and adjective is very vague (apart from the special context which usually makes it perfectly clear).

> 1. Chaucer's Italian journey.
> 2. Chaucer's Italian period.
> 3. Italian literature.
> 4. An Italian grammar.
> 5. An Italian scholar on English Literature.
> 6. Sir Thomas Browne, who resided for a time in Italy, and was presumably a good Italian scholar, has four or five interesting quotations from the 'Commedia'.
>
> Edinb. Rev. April 1908, p. 408.
>
> In the second act we pass from Gibraltar and a dialogue twixt Nelson and Collingwood, through two French scenes —

1) Thus we may say: *by royal command, by the King's command, by command of H. M. the King.*

scenes we mean from the French side (Villeneuve at Ferrol and the Boulogne camp once more) — back to Wessex.
ib. p. 424.

The Bulletin can be bought of any Oriental bookseller [1]).
Times Lit. 16/11, '17.

The crying need for an Oriental School in London.
Athen. 28/8, 15.

And then, in an unthinking moment, I idly turned the leaves. Jerome, Three Men in a Boat, ch. 1.

He could not help noticing and admiring Haddon's swift dexterity, in spite of his envious quality [2]) and his disposition to detract. Wells, Country p. 166.

He felt it needed explanation, and he hurried to secure an elbowed, unsavory corner in the back of the court in order to hear her defence. He had to wait through long stuffy spaces of time before she appeared. Wells, Harman ch. 9 § 3.

His love of reading and inactive habits.
Macdonald, Pref. to John Galt's Annals p. VIII.

Last month we drew attention to the widespread character of this uprising of a hitherto somewhat placid section of the community. Times Ed. S. 6/6, '16.

He was as a fish with the hook in his gills, mysteriously caught without having nibbled; and dive into what depths he would, he was sensible of a summoning force that compelled him perpetually towards the gasping surface.
Meredith, R. Feverel.

They had been the subjects of unblushing extortion.

Returning one night from a dinner, he invited a dramatic friend, who does not restrict his love of comedy to the stage, to take a seat in his hansom, as he should pass his door.
Hole, Memories p. 64.

It is unnecessary to multiply examples; they are to be found everywhere. Thus in the Introduction prefixed to the

---

1) i. e. any seller of oriental books, or books on oriental subjects.
2) i. e. in spite of his being envious.

collection of short stories by Mr. H. G. Wells, the author in the first five pages speaks of

> the *friendly* accommodation of Messrs. Macmillan; an *inclusive* and not an *exclusive* gathering; that *initial* nucleus; [1]) the nineties was a good and *stimulating* period for a short-story writer; in the *dignified* pages of the Fortnightly Review.
>
> I suppose it is the lot of every critic nowadays to suffer from indigestion and a *fatigued* appreciation, and to develop a *self-protective* tendency towards rules that will reject, as it were, automatically the more *abundant* and irregular form.

Adverb Adjuncts

Form 1849. Adverb adjuncts qualify adjectives, adverbs, and verbs. They may be:

1. adverbs and converted adjectives (1796 ff.).

> It is *quite* clear to me.
> He lives *here*.
> He spoke *very* distinctly.
> He spoke *distinctly*.
> He came *early*.

2 nouns (or noun-equivalents) with a preposition.

> He is fond *of hearing his own voice*.
> He spoke *of your book (of going home)*.
> I confide *in you*.
> Don't laugh *at us*.
> We stood *on firm ground* again.
> He behaved *like a madman*.
> He is as stupid *as his brother*.

3. nouns (or noun-equivalents) without a preposition.

---

1) i. e. a nucleus that is a beginning.

I saw *the machine.*
Bring *me my cheque-book.*
The soldiers fought *all day.*
It lasted *twenty-four hours.*
Men *Sussex* born and bred. Athen. 23/1, '15.

Meaning **1850.** The relations between the verbal predicate and its adverb adjuncts are various. As these relations are of grammatical importance, we distinguish them by special names.

Adverbs **1851.** The adverb adjuncts mentioned in 1849, 1 chiefly express:

1. place: He lives *here.* Compare 1857 (1).
2. time: He came *early.* Compare 1857 (1) and (2).
3. degree: I understand you *perfectly.*
4. manner: He spoke *distinctly.*

1852. There is a fifth class of adverb adjuncts, as in the following.

I *really* don't know him.
You must *not* do that.
He will *probably* be able to help you.

These adverbs express the attitude of the speaker towards the idea expressed by the connection of subject and predicate, especially in how far the sentence is to be taken as an expression of a fact or not: they express *modality.*

1853. Adverbs of modality are used:

1. to confirm.

   He will *certainly* come.

2. to deny.

   I do *not* believe him.

3. to express probability, etc., all these being forms of uncertainty.

He will *possibly* arrive in time.
He knows about it *apparently*.

1854. In conditional clauses *only* is used modally. It expresses that the speaker would like the condition to be possible.

If I only knew what was the matter with him, I might know what to do.

The conditional clause may also be used as an exclamatory sentence.

If I only knew what was the matter with him.

1855. On such adverbs as *fortunatelg (Fortunately he was prepared for the request)*, see the sections on *Apparent Simple Sentences*.

Nouns without a Preposition

1856. Nouns without a preposition are also used as adverb adjuncts (see 873). They may express:

1. extent of space (*a*), or time (*b*).

a. We have walked ten miles.
We have walked this path before.
b. It lasted a long time.
He walked all day.
He insisted on my stopping the night.
Sweet, Element. p. 56.
He does nothing the whole day.

2. a period of time (*a*) or a point of time (*b*). In this case the noun must have an attributive adjective or pronoun. Nouns without such an adjunct require a preposition.

a. Nobody except himself came near the spot that night (cf. *on Sunday*). Hardy, Return of the Native I ch. 9.

The same hour the next evening found him again at the same place. id. ib.

He pursued precisely the same course yet four nights longer, and without success. But on the next [1]), being the day week of their previous meeting, he saw a female shape, ... id. ib.

b. And it is not want of memory; for I declare I can see him this moment. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

He came the next Sunday, one Sunday, every Sunday (but: on Sunday).

3. direction.

He did not know what way to go.

He said very little one way or the other about his experience as an officer. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 1.

He lives Cricklewood way.

4. measure (i.e. weight, age, price):

It weighs twenty pounds.

He is six years old.

It costs five shillings.

5. comparison (rarely).

But report said the girl was very handsome, and showed breeding; she seemed a foreigner, walked like a Goddess, sat her horse the perfect Amazon [2]). Meredith, Ormont ch. 2.

Although *home* in *to go home* is originally a noun (case 3), it is now to be looked upon as an adverb. It can take an adverb of degree: *His subject came too home to his audience to be dull.* Trollope, Barchester T. ch. 6.

For 1 and 2 see also 1851.

---

1) The non-prepositional adjunct, with the article, may be avoided at the beginning of a sentence to prevent it from being taken for the subject. Compare: *We* continued our way home; and next day Graham went into business. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 1.

2) Or can *the perfect Amazon* be called a predicative adjunct?

Objects

1857. In such a sentence as *Has she cleaned the knives*, the noun is an adjunct to the predicative verb but it does not express any of the relations mentioned in 1856. Nor would it be possible to define its relation in that way, for the adjunct *knives* does not modify the verb, but is inseparably connected with it. Such adjuncts to the verb, whether finite or non-finite, are called objects.

1858. The object [1]) often expresses:

1. the person or thing affected by the action of the predicative verb.

He has cleaned the knives.
We killed two hares.
Don't strike the boy.

2. the person or thing effected (produced) by the action mentioned in the predicative verb.

The Council has appointed a new headmaster.
I am writing a letter.
Uncle James will build our house.

Accordingly we sometimes distinguish *affective* and *effective* objects.

1859. The effective objects may express the result of the verbal action. We also have an effective object in *to strike a great blow, to talk nonsense, to spit fire, to preach a sermon, to ask a question, to see an interesting sight, to sing a song*, etc. See also 1862.

In these cases the object expresses the content of the verb. It is also used with verbs that are generally intransitive. In many cases the object is identical in meaning (often in form, too) with the verb; in such cases we speak of *cognate objects*.

---

1) On the case of noun-objects, see 873 ff. and 896.

He had said his say.

Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 12 § 2, p. 485.

It was at Chatham that poor little David Copperfield, on his solitary tramp to Dover, slept his Sunday night's sleep "near a cannon, happy in the society of the sentry's footsteps."

Ward, Dickens ch. 1.

Prodigious was the amount of life I lived that morning.

Brontë, Villette ch. 6.

Smiling a smile of which the levity puzzled me ... ib.

And then Blandley laughed a great jolly laugh, which set him coughing, because he smoked too much.

Niven, Porcelain Lady ch. 4.

1860. It is not always easy to say to which class an object belongs. We may speak of an affective object in *He entered the house; The book interested (pleased) me very much.* But it is only from the standpoint of a student of language that we can say that the object in *He spoke those very words* expresses the effect produced by the speaking. We may call it an effective object, however, in the sense explained in 1859, as also in *He saw the machine.*

Occasionally it is impossible to classify an object. Thus *money* in *He has much money* is hardly an affective, still less an effective object. This difficulty is naturally greatest when the verb has little independent meaning, so that the group might rather be considered as a compound: *to have breakfast, to catch cold, to give orders, to give a glance, to get the sack.*

(He) gave orders to saddle the grey gelding [1]).

Mackenzie, Seven Ages of Woman ch. 1.

Mrs. Baines gave a brief glance at her.

Bennett, Old W. Tale.

In many of these cases the verb is subordinated in stress to the noun so that the unity of the group is emphasized:

1) The simple verb *to order* would be impossible here, as it requires an accusative-with-infinitive.

to catch cold, *to take place* (also *to take part*, *to take pleasure*, etc.), *to shake hands*. Some of these groups are equivalent to the simple verb: *to make resistance, to resist; to pay a call, to call; to pay a visit, to visit; to have experience, to experience.*

On the formal object *it*, see 1001 ff.

1861. One of the most important grammatical peculiarities of objects is that they can become subjects in a passive sentence. Indeed, if this change is not possible we cannot consider the adjunct as completely and undoubtedly an object. Thus, we call *money* an object in *He has much money* but it is not to be identified with objects that can be subjects of a passive sentence. The reason for calling *money* an object is purely negative: it does not modify the meaning of *to have*, so that it cannot be classified as an adverb adjunct (1856).

The similarity of these nouns to objects causes a passive construction to be used even where the noun in the active sentence cannot be interpreted as a real object.

> Chapter and verse being difficult to give, recourse is had to allusion.
>
> None of the facilities for hearing music which we now enjoy existed for Shelley, and ... his principal experience of it was had in Eton College Chapel. Times Lit.

It has also been shown (336 ff.) that the infinitive with *to* can sometimes be looked upon as an object, though it can never become the subject of a passive construction.

Some verbs cannot take a noun-object but can be construed with a clause that has the same function. Such are *to think*, *to suppose*. Note also that some of these verbs can take a pronoun-object, frequently *it* and *so* (1029 ff.).

1862. It is sometimes doubtful whether a noun is to be looked upon as an object or an adverb adjunct.

They began to talk dogs.
Bennett, Old W. Tale II ch. 1 § 3.

The spectacle of the wealthiest nobleman in Great Britain tramping the road [1]), pack on back ...
Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 8.

She might have looked her thanks to Gabriel on a minute scale, but she did not speak them.
Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. 1.

The air changed its temperature. id. ib. ch. 38.

He begged his way home.

We waited [2]) dinner for you.

Also *to look admiration at a person, to look daggers, to smile encouragement upon, to talk shop (politics).* Compare 1859.

Indirect and Direct Object

1863. Some verbs are used with two objects. In that case the first *(indirect)* object nearly always denotes a person (*a*), rarely a thing (*b*). The second (*direct*) object is usually non-personal, but it may denote a person (*c*).

a. I gave him a penny.

Bring me my cheque-book.

I asked him some questions.

"To the best of my ability," I said, "I will do you a translation." Wells, Country p. 468.

To remember this will spare the reader some disappointment.
Athenaeum, 23/1, '15.

No one paid him any heed. Cannan, Corner ch. 30.

He allotted them a house to live in.
Wakeman, Introd. p. 12.

b. This lends his departure strange effects.
Besant, All Sorts and Conditions of Men.

You ought to give the house a new coat of paint.

Give the pen a rest. Clara joins in hoping you'll come.
Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 5.

1) Compare 1856, 1.

2) i.e. put off. But also: we waited for you with respect to the dinner.

c. And she almost envied Grace Crawley her lover.
Trollope, Last Chron. ch. 28.
"I don't envy you him, but 'it'", said Lily. ib. ch. 52.

The indirect object usually expresses the person or thing that is benefited by the action (e. g. *do, spare, allot*), often combined with direction of place (e. g. *bring*, less clearly *give*); it rarely expresses another relation (as in *ask*); see 1866.

In *I shall keep him company* we have two objects if we look at the form and consider that neither *him* nor *company* can be called an adverb adjunct. But in reality *to keep company* is one in meaning and should rather be looked upon as a distance-compound (1689). This explains, too, why *company* cannot become the subject of a corresponding passive construction, whereas *he was kept company* would seem to be possible.

1864. The use of two objects is occasional in the following examples (*a*); also in the two last with an infinitive or clause for a direct object (*b*).

a. Well, then, suppose you prove it by calling me a cab.
H. James, Reverberator p. 18.

(Bulgaria) has in great measure forfeited the sympathy and the admiration in Europa which her history since her liberation and her achievements in the contest with Turkey had earned her. Times W. 18/7, '13.

Play me a nocturne, Dorian. Wilde, Dorian Gray.

Soon after our return from Ireland he wrote me an account of his visit to Blair Athole. Dean Hole, Mem. p. 42.

At length, in 1782, he (i. e. John Bull) was again exasperated into action, by discovering that the corruptionists had lost him America [1]). Trevelyan, British History p. 1.

In the darkest hour of danger and disgrace, great men had not been wanting to our need. Carleton had saved us Canada. Hastings had saved us India. id. ib. p. 42.

1) See 1874.

b. I wrote you I was with the Pettigrews.
Meredith, Diana p. 20.

Trajan wrote Pliny not to search out Christians for death, but only to deal with cases that were brought before him.
Goodspeed, Hist. p. 407.

It has been pointed out that what seems to be the indirect object is rather an adverb adjunct in some of these cases, and that such an 'occasional' indirect object rarely becomes the subject of a passive construction (274 ff.), although the construction is not in all cases impossible [1]).

I retire to rest at 9.30, and, having disrobed and covered myself with an augmented supply of blankets, I am brought a glass of hot milk by one of my sisters. Punch 4/11, '14.

1865. The indirect object is often equivalent to an adjunct with *to*, less often *for*, and *of*. The choice of these prepositions depends upon the relation between the verb and the object (1863). On the character of these prepositional groups, see 1870 f.

I gave the penny to the boy.
Bring my cheque-book to me.
I asked some questions of him.

So pleased was Scott with this specimen of his friend's press that he promised to him the printing of a volume on the old border ballads. Camb. Hist. Eng. Lit. XII, 5.

The statement must not be inverted; for adverb adjuncts with *to* accompanying an object are not object-equivalents when they express place.

He spoke those words to his father.
He dedicated the book to his parents.

1866. It is very rare for a verb to have one object only that is equivalent to an adjunct with *to*.

1) If an indirect object can be replaced by an adjunct with *for*, it cannot become the subject of a passive construction.

I can telegraph my lawyers.
Wharton, House of Mirth p. 192.

The explanation of this is probably that the word has shifted its meaning a little: *to telegraph*, as long as it was understood to mean *to send a telegram*, took *to*. But when it was understood as *to inform* (by telegram), which might be when telegrams came to be daily and ordinary things, it could take an object. Compare also the following quotation:

"If I may, I'll go out at once and telegraph to Lady Doleford — or are you on the telephone?" said Graham.
"We're not, but Aunt Agnes is," said Barbara. "And I'm supposed to be with Aunt Agnes till to-morrow. If you could telephone Aunt Agnes — But it (viz. the fog) may lift in an hour or two." Cotes, Cinderella ch. 13.

Another difficulty is caused by such a case as *She made him a good wife*. In this case *him* might very well be called an indirect object, expressing as it does, the person benefited, but *wife* cannot be considered as an object. One proof (or indication) is that it cannot become the subject of a passive construction (see 1861). Besides *him* is an adjunct to *wife* rather than to *make*, which has the function of a copula here.

Make is also very much like a copula in a sentence like the following: *Branches make very comfortable seats, said the squirrel.* See 1832 (*to form a class*).

Again, in such a case as *She leads him a dog's life* we may interpret *him* as an object denoting the person affected by the action[1]); it may also become the subject of a passive construction: *He is led a dog's life*. We might compare *I asked him a question*, but in this case *him* can be replaced by a prepositional adjunct, and there is a possibility of making *question* the subject of a passive construction.

1) The verb, in this case, must be supposed to mean: *to cause (him) to lead.*

Another case mentioned in 1832 (*to play the schoolmaster*) does not seem to fit in any of the classes distinguished. It resembles those discussed in 1859 and 1862. Its origin may be theatrical, *to play* meaning *to act the part of, to represent.*

Retained Object

1867. It has been shown (274) that either of the two objects of an active verb may become the subject of a passive construction. When the direct object is turned into the subject of a passive construction, the other object is generally replaced by an adjunct with *to*. But when the indirect object becomes the subject, the direct object remains unchanged; it is called the *retained* object in the passive construction. The retained object is usually a noun, less often a personal pronoun (see 1863*c*), so that the form rarely shows anything of the function. That the retained object is as much an object as the object of an active verb, however, is shown by such a sentence as the one quoted in 274: *Steve was offered and took the leadership.* Compare 1871.

Dativus Sympatheticus

1868. A noun, but far more frequently a personal pronoun, may be used as an adjunct to the predicative verb to express the person whose body or mind or belongings generally are concerned in the action (*a*). This construction is parallel with the use of the genitive or possessive pronoun (*b*). The latter construction is the usual one in English. The former is so exceptional that I can quote one example only; we may retain the Latin name, *dativus sympatheticus*. See also 1087 [1]).

a. He had hardly dared to look his clergy in the face.
Trollope, Framley.

b. The blood rushed to Lily's forehead.
Wharton, House of Mirth.

1) Poutsma quotes: *That stood me in good stead.* The *b*-construction is impossible here, however, because *stead* has no independent meaning: *in good stead* is rather to be looked upon as a compound.

But when they looked into the venerable stranger's face, not the most thoughtless among them dared to offer him the least impertinence. Van Neck, Easy Engl. Prose.

Lord Lufton, as he spoke, looked full into his mother's face. Trollope, Framley.

June bit her lip till the blood came.
Galsworthy, Man of Property II ch. 2.

She could not help the tears of rage rolling down her face.
Galsworthy, ib.

Gift bread chokes in a man's throat.
Trollope, Framley ch. 36.

Dativus Ethicus

1869. The personal pronouns of the first and second persons are occasionally found, but only in familiar English, to indicate the person who takes an interest in the action, without being either the doer of it or its object.

In imitation of Latin grammar this may be called the *dativus ethicus*; it is not necessary to show that the name like that of dativus sympatheticus, is only partially applicable to English [1]). The ethical dative does not express the person who is benefited by the action; it cannot be replaced by an adjunct with a preposition. Hence, in the last quotation of 981 *me* must be looked upon as an indirect object.

In his gusto for life and letters, this septuagenarian youngster peppers you his page with allusions and illustrations... Times Lit. 27/1, '16.

Prepositional Adjuncts

1870. Adverb adjuncts consisting of a noun (or pronoun) with a preposition generally depend for their relation to their headword on the meaning of the preposition. It is needless to classify them as far as the preposition has an independent meaning. If the preposition has no meaning of its own it modifies the meaning of the verb, and forms in some respects a compound with it. This

1) Compare the term *accusative*-with-infinitive.

seems clearly the case in such expressions as *to come to grief, to come to beggary,* even though it would be possible to call the adjunct one expressing result.

Prepositional Objects

1871. Some prepositional adjuncts present peculiar features. When we say *I laughed at him* we have indeed a prepositional adjunct *at him* as far as form goes. But it is evident that the verb is not *laugh* but *laugh at.* The form *him* is, therefore, in much the same relation to the verb as in *I saw him.* This is also shown by the fact that *him* can become the subject in both cases: *He was seen; He was laughed at.* See 273, and 279 ff., also 519 and 1867.

The same noun may serve as an object to an ordinary transitive verb and to a verb with a preposition (*a*), even to a verb with an object and a preposition (*b*).

a. He refused to accept, to listen to, or even to consider, the opinions of those who differed from him.

Times Lit. 14/4, '21.

For these names hardly seem to fit places which are bits of a real geological system you can look at in the light of common day and tramp over and describe as limestone or schist or whatever it may be. Times Lit. 23/2, 22.

b. It caught hold of and satisfied the higher imagination of contemporaries more than any other political movement.

ib. 16/9, '20.

Hence these adjuncts are generally called *prepositional objects.* The prepositional objects are identical in function with what may be called the *plain* objects (1857 ff.). The same distinctions with respect to meaning may be made here. See also 1865. The name prepositional object has been retained here, as it is the traditional one. But it has already been pointed out that the word preceding the object is an adverb rather than a preposition, forming a semi-compound with the preceding verb.

1872. The object-character of these prepositional adjuncts is also shown by the circumstance that in many cases the verb can be used without the preposition or adverb (*a*), although the passive of such verbs is rarely possible without a preposition (*b*).

a. She sat the horse with perfect ease.
Garvice, Staunch p. 84.

A severe blizzard swept the greater part of England and Wales yesterday. Daily News 3/2, '12.

The wanton giddy-pated pusses who play two gentlemen or more on their line. Meredith, Beauchamp's Career p. 100.

b. They will try and rush the boats.
Van Neck, Adv. Engl. Prose.

The boats will be rushed.

Thus we find both constructions in *to climb (up) a tree, to fight (against) an enemy, to leap (across) a fence,* etc.

1873. Verbs construed with an object are said to be used transitively. It is usual, in imitation of classical grammar, to use *transitive* with reference only to verbs that have a plain object, but there seems to be no reason in present English to exclude the verbs with a prepositional object.

Many verbs can be used both transitively and intransitively: *I tasted the wine — The wine tasted sweet.* It will be sufficient to give a few of the less obvious cases [1]).

The modes of the moment are frankly picturesque, and they are meeting with general favour. The truth is most women had tired of the straight silhouette. Daily News 25/3, '12.

The method of selection which has obtained up to now.

The pronunciation still obtained in the School in the middle of the eighteenth century. Westminster School p. 120.

The collection had begun in Melchester.
Vachell, Quinneys' p. 170.

1) Sometimes the meaning of the intransitive verb is so widely different that we might speak of two verbs in spite of their identity of sounds.

The carriage was hot, for it had roasted all day under an August sun. Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 2.

Yet change has come over him also. Both his tastes and hopes seem, in some degree, to have modified.
J. C. Squire in Observer, 11/3, 23.

Sometimes it seems necessary to call a verb transitive even though the object is not expressly mentioned. It would hardly do in the last of the following quotations to distinguish a transitive and an intransitive verb *wash up*.

They strike [1]) equally cold and dead, for the truth is not in them. E. Sichel, in Essays I p. 139.

Even the majestic thought that whenever and wherever in all England a woman washes up, she washes up the product of the district, ... Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 1 § 1.

Causatives **1874.** Some verbs that are usually intransitive can also be used causatively. The last quotation illustrates the causative meaning of the *intransitive sell*.

Only the vigorous efforts of the states of Middle Greece led by the Aetolian League halted them near Delphi, and drove them back. Goodspeed, Hist. p. 229.

He put his arm through mine, and signing to the others to accompany as, walked me off, westerly, through the forest.
Hope, Zenda ch. 3.

What is it that sells novel? Is it the quality of surprise...
Globe.

Intransitive and Passive **1875.** It has been pointed out (285 ff.) that formally passive verbs are sometimes intransitive in meaning. Conversely, formally intransitive verbs may suggest a more or less passive sense, although an adjunct with *by* expressing the agent would be impossible [2]).

---

1) i. e. *the reader*.

2) Note also that the subjects are non-personal; compare 205 .

In regard to style this volume compares favourably with its predecessors. Athenaeum 4/7, 1908.

The translations read well, but we notice that Dr. Wright disclaims responsibility for them. ib. 18/11, '11.

The translation chosen proved to have, in full, that dramatic value which it is so hard to gauge without an actual trial on the stage. It played well: it did not sound like a translation. Classical Rev. 26 (Febr. 1912).

(Dickens's) fame was never more secure than at the present time: edition after edition of his works pours from the press. Athenaeum 10/2, '12.

All the substantialities of his scheme of policy, most of its details, even, had been tossing about in the public journals and other channels of information for days before. Pilot 10/12, 1903.

1876. In some cases both the passive and the simple form are used in the same meaning, although the passive seems to be the usual form.

Efforts made to sink her before the flames reached the explosives were unsuccessful, and, after an interval, she blew up. Times W. 14/12, '17.

They have neglected the art of swimming, and therefore, when a canoe upsets, they commonly drown. Daily News 15/2, '12.

Intransitive and Reciprocal

1877. Active verbs without an object sometimes have a reciprocal meaning.

Our letters must have crossed.

Seventeen she had told him had been her age, and they had kissed in the dark, midway between two lamps. Sinister Street p. 839.

Voice

1878. Voice is the name for a verbal form according as it primarily expresses the action or state with regard to its subject, which may be represented as acting (*active voice*)

undergoing (*passive voice*), or affected by its own action (*reflexive voice*).

The active and the passive voice are closely connected; their forms and uses have been treated in the chapter on *Verbs*. The reflexive voice is the verb with a compound personal pronoun (*to avail oneself of an opportunity, to enjoy oneself*, etc.).

It seems most convenient to treat of voice here (instead of of in the discussion of the verbal predicate: 1829), because it cannot be severed from the treatment of objects. It should be understood, however, that transitivity and intransitivity are independent of voice. As we have seen transitive verbs may be active or passive, and we shall see that they may also be reflexive. An intransitive verb, too, may be in any of the three voices. Conversely, active, passive, and reflexive verbs may be transitive or intransitive; note, however, that the object of passive and reflexive verbs cannot become the subject of a corresponding passive construction.

1879. The reflexive verbs may have a plain object (*a*), more frequently a prepositional object (*b*). Most reflexive verbs, however, are generally used intransitively (*c*); see also the next section [1]).

a. I have bought myself a pair of gloves.

b. I shall avail myself of the opportunity offered to me.

c. The air changed its temperature and stirred itself more vigorously. Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. 38.

To put the point metaphorically, we may say that the river of fiction to-day pours itself in ever-increasing volume into the ocean of print. Lord Ernle, Eng. Assoc. Pamphlet n° 50.

1880. Some verbs may be used reflexively but express the same meaning when used without the pronoun. They are all of them intransitive.

1) See also 1054 ff.

"I can assure you I let dozens of little matters go, rather than bother myself."

"Then why do you bother now?" Sophia posed her.
Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 4 § 6.

I can wash and dress myself in half an hour.

By the time you have washed and dressed, breakfast will be ready. Sweet, Element. no. 31.

She was a long time undressing.
J. O. Hobbes, Some Emotions, p. 29.

Mrs. and Dr. Workman — we follow the order of their title-page — have proved themselves most persistent and energetic explorers of the glaciers of the Himalaya.
Athenaeum, 23/5, 1908.

Toby proved to be an ugly creature [1]).
Conan Doyle, Sign of Four.

"You have been over-working," said Golightly.
Hobbes, Emotions p 6.

Her eyes filled with tears.

Every now and then she indulged herself in the luxury of terror, reading signs in everything. Cannan, Corner ch. 16.

Don't worry yourself. Wells, Country p. 69.

As the story unfolds, and with it the characters of the simple, yet shrewd mountain-dwellers, there is something in the drama, its persons and scenery, that compels interest and sympathy. Athenaeum 14/3, 1908.

At this time, after his family had settled itself in the Marshalsea ... Ward, Dickens ch. 1.

Hide, Martha, hide. Dickens, Christmas Carol st. 2.

He watched the white clouds showing through the branches.
Moore, Untilled Field.

1881. The reflexive verbs are often distinguished as *necessarily-reflexive* and *occasionally-reflexive* verbs. The following occur in the reflexive voice only: *to plume oneself, to pride oneself, to absent oneself, to perjure oneself.* Others are

1) Note the addition of *to be.*

necessarily reflexive in this sense that the meaning expressed by the reflexive voice is not expressed by the active or passive, although the active (or passive) occurs in a different meaning: such are *to enjoy oneself, to bethink oneself, to avail oneself, to pique oneself.* Some of these, however, may take a (non-personal) object, e. g. *to enjoy an outing*, or a personal object in a different meaning e. g. *to confine, to resign.*

The following are occasionally-reflexive; *to wash, to overwork*, etc.

1882. A more important distinction seems to be that between verbs that can take an emphatic reflexive pronoun and those that cannot. For if the pronoun is emphatic it is a real object; in such a case the verb is active rather than reflexive.

None of the verbs that are invariably reflexive can take such an object. A reflexive object can be used after *to wash, to dress, to indulge;* not after *to overwork* (and the other verbs with *over-*), *bother, prove*, etc. See 1057 ff.

Objects to Adjectives

1883. In the preceding sections the object has been treated as a sort of adjunct to a verb. The same relation, however, may also exist between adjuncts and adjectives. English rarely uses plain objects to adjectives; the chief are *busy, like, near, worth, (un)worthy.*

And of these the first does not take nouns as objects but only gerunds (see 431 f.).

He is very like his father.

We have come nearer the Greeks.

Murray, Essays III p. 11.

His sketches are well worth inspection.

Athenaeum 21/9, '12.

Mercia was even less homogeneous than Northumbria; it had no frontiers worth mention.

Pollard, Hist. of England p. 16.

He was being loudly acclaimed for work unworthy his talent.
Whibley, Thackeray p. 76.

If we set aside altogether Shakespeare's sonnets, one sonnet of extraordinary beauty .... and perhaps other thirty worthy a place in an anthology, constitute a very satisfactory proportion of the thousand here printed. Athenaeum 6/8, 1964.

1884. We might also speak of prepositional objects to adjectives: *certain of a thing, fond of children, suggestive of, confident of success.*

(They were) suggestive of anything, proclaiming nothing.
Hardy, Madding Crowd, ch. 11.

There is a grammatical reason for distinguishing prepositional objects to adjectives, for these adjectives are sometimes used (without a preposition) as headwords for clauses that are best interpreted as object clauses: *I am certain that he has done it.* See 1912 ff. If we distinguish prepositional objects to adjectives, the term should also apply to prepositional adjuncts to nouns that have a similar function: *in memory of, the certainty of, fondness of children, the demand for this book*, etc. Some of these nouns, too, can be followed by clauses that have the character of object-clauses: 1912 ff.

Predicative Adjuncts

1885. A predicative adjunct may refer to the subject and predicative verb (*a*), or to the object and the verb (*b*). The predicative adjunct [1]) is frequently a noun, or an adjective, less often an adverb. See also 1274 ff.

a. I had walked into that reading-room a happy, healthy, man. I crawled out a decrepit wreck.
Jerome, Three Men in a Boat ch. 1.

1) As the predicative word in this case refers to a noun as well as to a verbal predicate it is sometimes called a *predicative-attributive* adjunct.

I had gone to bed Henry Jekyll, I had awakened Edward Hyde. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

He arrived safe and sound.

b. He called me a thief.

The Prime Minister made him a bishop.

He painted the door green.

1886. Among the verbs that take an object with a predicative noun are those of making and declaring: to acknowledge, appoint, call, choose, consider, create, crown, declare, elect, make, name, proclaim, etc. The 'object' may be a reflexive pronoun, but in this case the predicative adjunct may rather be considered as qualifying the subject, as in the passive construction (271). See 1882, also 1830.

The Council has appointed him headmaster.

I consider him a fool.

What struck him was a general level of behaviour, accent and costume that sorted them, as it were, labelled them Londoners belonging to the prosperous classes.

Sidgwick, Severins ch. 4.

(The pseudonymous author) reveals himself a professional in a number of little touches. Times Lit. 29/6, 16.

He has a clergyman whom he pronounces a blessing to the entire neighbourhood. Escott, England I, p. 15.

(His father) had said before Rodney was born that he would like to have a son a sculptor. Moore, Untilled Field p. 7.

To catch the spirit of the common field system, to see that system no mere historical survival, but developing in harmony with modern needs, one must go to the Isle of Axholme.

Slater, Engl. Peasantry p. 52.

1887. Most of the verbs in 1886, and a good many others, can also take an object with a predicative adjective. For the last three quotations, see 1886 on reflexive verbs.

I call your plan dangerous.

It is hard to say why I rate "Middlemarch" so high.

Lord Acton, Letters to Mary Gladstone p. 60.

Now, Molly, I can't have you democratic. Rank is a great distinction. Gaskell, Wives III p. 267.

Lysander won the final victory which brought Athens low. Goodspeed, Hist. p. 178.

I stretched out my hand, picked it (viz. a little snake) up *unresisting*, and put it in my coat like the husband-man of old. Fairless, Road-Mender I.

He talked himself hoarse.

She laughed herself crooked. Benson, Mr. Teddy ch. 13 p. 293.

Lady Harman was surprised to discover herself hungry. Wells, Harman ch. 6 § 9.

1888. Some verbs require an object and predicative noun with *as* or *for*: to look on, view, regard, represent, treat, acknowledge, accept (with *as*); choose, take, hold (with *for*). *To know* takes both *as* and *for*. We can also look upon the noun after *to count among* as a predicative adjunct.

They still looked on themselves as mere settlers and regarded the name of 'Irishman' as an insult.

(Don Quixote) saw the world only in the mirror of his beloved romances: he mistook inns for enchanted castles, windmills for giants, and country wenches for exiled princesses. Times Lit. 27/4, '16.

I know him as an honest man.

I know for a fact that a courier was waiting.

Do you count him among your friends?

On the corresponding passive constructions, see 271. For the construction with a provisional object *it*, see 1011 ff.

The accusative-with-infinitive (with *to* and without), the accusative-with-participle (past and present), and the accusative-with-gerund (plain or prepositional) have also been discussed in the first part. It has also been shown that the verbal in these constructions is not always to be interpreted as a predicative adjunct.

1889. The predicative adjunct is occasionally a noun with

a preposition. It is not always clear in this case whether we have a predicative or an adverb adjunct. On *among*, see 1888. The use of *to* in the passive construction seems quite exceptional.

We found him in a dreadful condition.
He has worked himself to death.
Vice-Admiral Keyes, who was in command of the operations, has been knighted, and Commander Carpenter of the Vindictive, has been promoted to captain. Times W. 3/5, '18.

1890. Adverbs are not frequently used as predicative adjuncts. In such constructions as *put your hat on* (2153 ff.) we had better speak of semi-compounds.

He did not remember the drawing-room otherwise than a closed room. Montgomery, Misunderstood ch. 1.
Have the children in.
I'll have you up [1]).
On the 15th, he tried again, and was again refused; and having now been used for the last two months to see his friend almost daily, he found this return of solitude to weigh upon his spirits. The fifth night he had in Guest to dine with him; and the sixth he betook himself to Dr. Lanyon's. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

Also in *to have it out, to fight it out;* see 1001.

1891. It has been pointed out (1889) that it is not always clear whether an adjunct should be looked upon as a predicative or as an adverb adjunct. This explains why we sometimes find both adjectives and adverbs in the same cases (*a*). Sometimes it is difficult to decide if an adjunct is to be considered attributive or predicative (*b*); the wordorder shows that this difficulty is not a piece of imagination on the part of the grammarian; see 2095.

1) i. e. before a magistrate.

a. You shall have these cheap.

We ought not to get the books too cheaply.

The stones of the road began to shine whitely from their dark surface. Walpole, Perris and Trail p. 282.

b. The blackbirds and thrushes care not a whit for such simple food as crumbs, but with legs *well apart* and claws *tense* with purchase they disinter poor brother worm, having first mocked him with sound of rain. Fairless, Road-Mender I.

The greater independence of the 'attributive' adjuncts under *b* with regard to the nouns to which they refer seems to call for a special term: it is proposed to call them *semi-predicative.*

Attributive and Predicative Adjectives

1892. Most attributive adjectives can also be used as nominal predicates and as predicative adjuncts. But some are used attributively only, chiefly those denoting materials (*a wooden leg*), and relation in space or time (*my left hand*, and the words in *-er* from adverbs: *inner, outer* etc., also *elder;* see 1526 ff.). Others are only used predicatively; these are mostly such as are really adverbs e. g. those with *a-* (*afloat, alert, asleep, awake*, etc. [1]), and such words as *well, ill* [2]).

Afraid may still be felt to be a participle; at least, when qualified by an adverb of degree it takes *much* (instead of *very*) and *too much* (instead of *too*). It may also be, however, that an attributive *afraid* is not used because it would suggest a quality, something more lasting than is meant by the word *afraid*, expressing a condition. We may compare *fast,* which is common enough in *The clock is fast*, yet we cannot say *a fast clock* [3]), although *fast women* is (and are) common enough.

1) Most of them were originally adjuncts with the preposition *on.*

2) Attributive *well* to express the state of health is felt to be exceptional.

Of course, I was frightened — scared to death. A well child was difficult enough — but a sick one! Strand Magazine Oct. 1920.

3) Can this be the explanation why such compounds as *wide-awake, sound-asleep*, can be used attributively, whereas the simple words cannot?

Alone, like the Dutch *alleen*, could originally be used predicatively only (*all one*) and has retained this restriction.

It is not so clear why *aware* [1]), *content*, *exempt*, *wont* are used predicatively only [2]).

Forms of the Predicate

1893. Recapitulating we may assume eight chief forms of the predicate:

1. A predicative noun, adjective or adverb with *to be* or a similar verb.

John is a blackguard.
Your father is rich.
The fire is out.

2. A verb, with an adverb or without.

He died suddenly.
The water boils.
It rains.

3. A verb with a prepositional adjunct.
I cut it with my knife.

4. A verb with an adjunct without a preposition.
It weighs ten pounds.

5. A verb with an object.
He killed the prisoner.

6. A verb with two objects.
He gave me the book.

---

1) In *aware* there is no original preposition (earlier *iwar*; cf. Dutch *gewaar*).

2) Jespersen, MnE. Gr. 14. 14 suggests that these words require an adjunct to complete their meaning. Such an explanation might account for *able*, for *an able man*, *he is very able* is a different word from *he is able to do it very quickly*. But can we say that in *a wary man*, *a contented child*, *with his wonted enthusiasm*, *exempted persons*, a different meaning is expressed from the predicative *aware*, *content*, *exempt*, *wont*? I should prefer the explanation given for *fast*, above.

7. A verb with a prepositional object.

We spoke of Mr. Jones.

8. A verb with an object and a predicative noun or adjective.

He called me a fool.

Free Adjuncts

1894. Sometimes adjuncts are separated from their headword by a pause or by other words. In these cases it is often difficult to decide what is the word qualified by the adjunct. Indeed, the adjunct often refers both to a noun (usually the subject or object of the sentence) and the predicative verb. Such adjuncts may be called *free adjuncts*.

When the free adjunct is a noun or adjective the relation to the rest of the sentence may be one of:

1. cause or reason.

An infantry officer, Major Lock had no chance of seeing the best of the fun in either of the great pushes northward.

Times Lit. 21/8, '19.

An active politician, Moore devoted many years to the support of the Whig party in the House of Commons.

Whibley, Thackeray p. 3.

Shy, reserved, and proud, I would have died rather than have breathed a syllable of my secret.

Rutherford, Autobiogr. p. 59.

The observed of all observers, the reviewers concentrated great attention upon one another's movements.

Times Lit. 22/1, '20.

2. time.

A boy home from Eton, he had his valet, and on his voyage to Lisbon he was accompanied by a footman.

Times Lit. 14/8, '19.

3. concession (*a*), often with the alternative *or* (*b*).

a. Never assuming superiority, he was obliged to yield. No orator, he addressed any company with effect. No student,

he seemed to be intuitively aware of the merits of any book of mark. Times W. 19/10, '17.

Not much of a talker in general, to-day her tongue was marvellously loosened. Peard, Madame's Grand-daughter p. 82.

Like all craftsmen of the kind, he is at the mercy of his material, which, abundant enough in some respects, is disappointingly scanty where the matters most provocative of curiosity are concerned. Times Lit. 12/10, '16.

b. Sympathy or no sympathy, a man's love should no more fail towards his fellows than that love which spent itself on disciples who altogether misunderstood him.

Rutherford, Autobiogr. p. 25.

The young cavalier perused that letter again in memory. Genuine, or a joke of the enemy, it spoke wakening facts to him. Meredith, Harrington ch. 18.

1895. In many (perhaps most) cases the relation between the free adjunct and the rest of the sentences is very vague; it may be expressed by "attendant circumstances." It is this very vagueness that is the reason for the existence of the construction.

A mining engineer, he had come home only yesterday from a long absence abroad. Kenealy, Mrs. Grundy.

The work of a distinguished French historian, this article has been translated for publication in "The Round Table." Times Lit. 14/9, '16.

The son of a Stratford burgess, who had married the daughter of a wealthy farmer, William Shakespeare grew up to manhood in his native place. Herford, Shakespeare p. 10.

Ruskin's strange and solitary boyhood had a lasting influence on his life. It was singularly shielded. An only child, we see him first in the Bloomsbury nursery absorbed in the colours of the carpet or in the operations of the turncock in the street... Times Lit. 7/2, '19.

1896. The relation between a free adjunct and the rest of the sentence is often indicated by a conjunction: *as if, if, when, however, though, whether;* also by a compound relative

pronoun. Closely related are the predicative adjuncts with *as:* see 1269 ff. on the *Indefinite Article.*

As if in response to this appeal, the leading newspapers have begun to express themselves as plainly as possible in favour of radical changes in the Government.
Times W. 26/1, '17.

Yet, so introspective was the age in which he wrote, that, as if unconsciously, he had made them, in his first description, hardly less than studies of social environment and character.
Camb. Hist. Eng. Lit. IX, 52.

This is true; but, if an explanation, it is certainly no excuse for the choice. ib. XII, 172.

When a child, I was permitted to handle on Sunday certain books which could not be exposed to the more careless usage of common day. Gissing, Ryecroft, V.

Sheldon, when bishop of London, began at once the repair of St. Paul's. Wakeman, Introd. p. 395.

However excellent the work of the individual, it is isolated; it bears little or no relation to the work of other individuals.
Athenaeum 28/8, '15.

However self-confident, Tod Sloan tells some stories against himself. ib. 11/9, '15.

Though rather shy and distrustful of this new acquaintance, Rip complied with his usual alacrity.
W. Irving, Sketch-Book.

Whether small or great, the town was a phenomenon sufficiently unfamiliar to vex the soul of lawyers reared upon Teutonic custom. Davis, Med. Europe p. 215.

Whatever the immediate result, there can be no doubt that the dispute has raised issues which can no longer be ignored.
Daily News, 27/2, '12.

1897. To express a reason supposed to be generally acknowledged as correct, the following construction is often used.

To us, familiar as we are with political organisations extending over enormous territories, it is a mere matter of

political convenience, whether a state extend over a few thousand square miles, or over a few hundred thousand.
Gardiner and Mullinger, Introd. to the Study of Hist. p. 6.

This construction is far more common with the participle; see 1713 ff.

1898. The free adjunct frequently has a 'subject' of its own; it may then be called an *absolute* adjunct [1]). The subject has the form of a common case of a noun (or pronoun); personal pronouns take the nominative, in which case we may speak of a *nominative absolute.*

The classic beverage within him, he was once more able to look the world in the eye. Snaith, Principal Girl.

The three times regulation in regard to accidents rarely failed in Winnie's experience, and the number once complete something of a gratifying nature could be reasonably anticipated.
Pett Ridge, Name of Garland.

Bridget sat sewing in the garden, her thoughts more busy than her fingers. Vachell, Pinch of Prosperity.

But this apart, the Conference will have much to do.
Times W. 2/2, '17.

Henry dead, the crown was seized by Steven of Blois.
Maitland, Const. Hist. p. 60.

It could do no harm to an obedient young girl to hear that there was no youth in the world like a certain youth. He the prince of his generation, she might softly consent, when requested, to be his princess. Meredith, Richard Feverel.

1899. The absolute adjunct may be connected with the rest of the sentence by means of *and* or *with.* See 561, 566.

Of all the company of those days he himself alone seemed left, except Swithin, of course, and he so outrageously big that there was no doing anything with him.
Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 2, p. 28.

1) The name, though conveying little meaning in itself, is a convenient adaptation of the Latin *ablative absolute.* Similarly we speak of an *absolute* infinitive: 392, and of an *absolute* participle: 559 ff.

The marriage was what is called a good one: both full of frolic, and he wealthy and rather handsome, and she quite lovely and spirited. No wonder the whole town was very soon agog about the couple, until at the end of the year people began to talk of them separately, she going her way, and he his. Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. I, p. 4.

For would that I myself had such a son,
And not that one slight helpless girl I have, —
A son so famed, so brave, to send to war,
And I to tarry with the snow-haired Zal.
Arnold, Sohrab and Rustum.

Presently after, he sat on one side of his own hearth, with Mr. Guest, his head clerk, upon the other.
Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

1900. The free adjuncts are very often used with infinitives, gerunds, and participles. These uses have been treated in the first volume. A free participle may become a preposition or a conjunction; see 730 ff.

1901. The free adjunct may also formally refer to a possessive pronoun. In such a case it really qualifies the personal pronoun implied in the possessive (*his* = *of him*). This construction is generally disapproved of.

His misfortune was that, like many excellent persons, his sense of humour was imperfect.
A. Dobson, Eighteenth Cent. Vignettes p. 121.

It is unnecessary to go profoundly into the history and origin of the essay — whether it derives from Socrates or Siranney the Persian — since, like all living things, its present is more important than its past. Times Lit. 30/11, 22.

Simple and Double Sentences

1902. When a sentence contains one subject and one predicate, it is a *simple* sentence. When it contains two

subjects each with a predicate of their own we have a *double* sentence, as in the following.

My father is out but my eldest brother is at home.
I stayed at home and all the others went out.
You had better ask him for he knows all about it.
A quiet, tender and comforting woman was Dick's mother, and he her only child. A. Kenealy, Mrs. Grundy.

A sentence containing more than two members may be called *a multiple* sentence.

1903. When two subjects have one predicate we can refer to them as a double subject. In the same way we can have a sentence with a double predicate, etc.

Double Subject.

The buyer and *the seller* came to an understanding.

Double Predicate.

All *were silent* and *listened attentively.*

Double Predicative verb.

He *stole* and *sold* the things.

Double Predicative Noun or Adjective.

Am I *right* or *wrong?*
He is *a liar* but *a clever man.*

Double Object.

I have told *your father* and *your brother* about it.
I have seen neither *your brother* nor *your sister.*

When there are more than two members we speak of a *multiple* subject, etc.

1904. It is not really possible in all cases to decide whether we have to deal with a simple sentence with a double subject, etc. or a double sentence. The following examples will be sufficient to show this.

1. One finite verb; two subjects.

No warmth could warm, nor wintry weather chill him.
Dickens, Christmas Carol st. 1.

But I am a man, you a woman. Hichens, Ambition ch. 6.

Missionaries do not pass for a very agreeable class, nor martyrs for a very sensible class. Morley, Compromise p. III.

2. One subject; two predicates or two finite verbs.

He's the Duchess's doctor, has been for years.
Walpole, Duchess of Wrexe ch. 1 § 4.

Parliament was, and from the reign of William III, had been to an ever greater degree, given up to place-hunting and intrigue. Times Lit. 12/2, '20.

The Dynasts on the stage might, but probably will not, be a lesson to those who divide works of art into classes.
ib. 19/2, '20.

Strafford, the strong minister of a weak king, tried to govern without parliament, and failed. The long parliament tried to govern without a king, and failed. Ilbert, Parliament p. 29.

1905. Double sentences, and double subjects etc., may succeed each other without any connecting word. When there is no grammatical sign that two successive sentences form a kind of unit, it is often a matter of indifference whether we speak of a double sentence or two independent sentences: the meaning is not affected by such a difference.

Sentences are often connected by a special word showing the relation between the two. The most usual connecting words are:

1. conjunctions:

and, but, or, nor, for.

For can connect sentences only, not parts of a sentence. See 1902. *As* and *than* can connect parts of sentences; clauses introduced by them are subordinate. See 1530 ff.

2. adverbs:

I entered first, *then* followed William.

You are right; *still* I shall not change my plan.

Double sentences or parts of a sentence, whether connected by these words or not, are called *co-ordinate*, because they are logically of equal weight and the first is not more dependent upon the second than the second upon the first.

The adverbs differ from conjunctions in that they form part of the second of the two sentences, whereas conjunctions belong to neither in particular. Some adverbs have a different meaning when used as conjunctions; thus *still, yet, now* chiefly express time when used as adverb adjuncts, but when used conjunctively the first two express contrast, the last is explanatory.

1906. As nouns, and most pronouns, do not distinguish the subject and the object by their form, constructions with *than* and *as* are sometimes ambiguous, because there is no form to show whether they are parts of double subjects or double objects.

I disliked John as much as (more than) *my cousins.*

If *my cousins* is a second subject the meaning would be clear if we wrote: *as much as my cousins did.* If it is an object it would be better to write: *as much as I did my cousins.* But in spoken English there would be no ambiguity: if *cousins* is a subject there is a strong stress on the contrasted subject *I*, if it is an object the contrasting stress falls on *John.*

The use of the auxiliary in the following quotations makes it clear that the noun in the second member of the comparison is a subject (*a*) or an object (*b*).

a. But this hard-headed and honest moralist ... was at bottom as much a defender of the existing state of things as was Blackstone. Dicey, Law and Opinion p. 73.

In matter and manner, if not in metrical form, his poetry has as little kinship with that of his immediate English predecessors as has the verse of Burns.

Camb. Hist. Eng. Lit. XII, 1.

Paley sees far more clearly into the true nature of the then existing constitution than did Blackstone.
Dicey, Law of the Const. p. 9 footnote.

There is hardly anything that shows the shortsightedness or capriciousness of the imagination more than travelling does.
Hazlitt, Select Essays ed. Peacock p. 270.

b. Few agents have ever more thoroughly earned their hire, or have served more niggardly masters than was Harley.
Camb. Hist. Eng. Lit. IX, 12.

On the cases of the personal pronouns in this construction, see 989 ff.

1907. The junction of two coordinate sentences or parts of sentences can be made more close by announcing it in the first sentence (by an adverb) and using a conjunction between the two sentences. Such pairs of adverbs and conjunctions are called *correlative* conjunctions: *both—and, at once—and, either—or, neither—nor, not only—but* (*also*), *what with—what* (*with*) or *and.*

The cowardly assailant was never discovered; but Mel was both gallant and had, in his military career, the reputation of being a martinet. Meredith, Harrington ch. 2 p. 15.

The Polish question is at once one of the most urgent and the most difficult of those which will have to be settled at the end of the war. Times Lit. 23/2, '17.

The local feuds and mutual recrimination to which this state of things gives rise are at once unfortunate and humiliating.
Escott, England I p. 122.

He neither explains away vices nor undersizes the virtues.
Times Lit. 4/11, '15.

Lucas neither spoke nor understood French — he had been at a great public school. Bennett, Roll-Call I ch. 8 § 1.

Neither Liberal leader nor Conservative could think of forming a Government unless he had a majority in the House of Commons. Times Lit. 5/2, '20.

Mr. Pyke in this admirable volume not only describes the

origin and growth of the law, but also endeavours to keep abreast of the recent authorities. Times Lit. 20 1, '16.

Neither kings nor bishops nor the English at large wished for the bureaucratic episcopacy of the Roman Empire [1]).

Watson, Eng. Church p. 23.

... while he drifts to a bourne which he can neither choose nor escape nor foresee. Times Lit. 8/3, 23.

Richard was neither to go to school nor to college.

Meredith, Feverel ch. 1.

And altogether, what with the caps and jackets of the men, the pretty coloured dresses of the women, the excited dogs, the moving boats, the white sails, the pleasant landscape, and the sparkling water, it is one of the gayest sights I know of near this dull old London town. Jerome, Boat ch. 7.

1908. *Neither* can also be used conjunctively without *nor*. In this case there is no difference between *neither* and *nor*, except that *neither* is used only in joining two negative sentences [2]) (*a*), whereas *nor* may do the same (*b*), but is also found when the first part is not-negative (*c*).

a. "But I don't want to seem eager." "Neither do I," said Bessie with a little laugh. H. James, Daisy Miller p. 185.

When Marcelle returned to the house she did not, as was usual, avoid her grandmother, but neither did she allude to her recent visitor. Peard, Madame p. 61.

I know nothing about it, and neither do you.

H. James, Daisy Miller p. 138.

b. In all the Five Towns there was not a public bath, nor a free library, nor a municipal park, nor a telephone, nor yet a board-school. Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 1 § 2.

---

1) Note that *three* words are negatived. Compare also: *It's neither fish nor flesh nor good red herring.*

2) Not a part of the sentence. In this respect it resembles *for* (1905), and *no more* (1909), but differs from *nor*, as in this quotation:

"I never thought," she exclaimed, "that the Westminster House of Commons could be so cheerful."

"Nor I," I said. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 11.

I could not pity myself, nor feel sorry for my friend, nor conceive them as grieving for me. Wells, Country p. 161.

Probably no two men of sound intelligence would dispute these truths. Nor perhaps can they be reiterated.
Times Lit. 21/9, '17.

She never annoyed a customer, nor foolishly promised what could not be performed, nor was late nor negligent, nor disrespectful. Bennett, Old W. Tale II ch. 7 § 2.

c. Such are the rocks that beset the course chosen by Professor Macneile Dixon for his Leslie Stephen Lecture. Nor does he altogether escape them. Times Lit. 23/9, '15.

His manner is both terse and distinguished, its dry humour is attractive, and it ranges both events and characters in perspective. Nor is its familiarity ever slipshod.
Times Lit. 4/11, '15.

1909. We also find *no more* at the beginning of a negative sentence [1]) to confirm a negative sentence of another speaker. See 618.

"They always set an English waiter at me. I suppose they think I can't speak French."

"No more you can." H. James, Daisy Miller p. 115.

The Compound Sentence

1910. If a part of a sentence (subject, nominal predicate, object etc.) has the form of a sentence with a subject and a predicate of its own, we call it a *subordinate clause*. The part to which this clause is subordinate is called the *principal clause*.

A sentence consisting of two (or more) clauses is called a *compound* sentence.

Subordinate clauses may be introduced by relative pronouns or adverbs and by conjunctions; there is often no connective word. According to form we might, therefore, distinguish:

1) See footnote to 1908.

1. relative clauses; 2. conjunctive clauses; 3. non-connected clauses.

As in the case of coordinate sentences we sometimes have correlative pairs; thus a head-clause may contain *yet, still, nevertheless* if connected with a clause of concession; also *then* if connected with a clause of condition, etc.

1911. According to the function they fulfil subordinate clauses are generally classified (without regard to their form) as:

1. subject clauses.

That you have said so can be proved.

It is clear *he did not want to go.*

That she was doing for an earnest reason what would most naturally be done in jest was at any rate a safe secret.

Hardy, Return of the Native II ch. 4.

2. Object clauses.

I expect *he will come.*

I laughed at *what he said.*

That the thing is impossible in England, who would venture to say? Gissing, Ryecroft XIX.

In all his designs, *whatever Mr. Leech desires to do*, he does. Dickens, in Hole, Memories p. 92.

I have been told that you are coming too.

The movement had been sufficient to show more clearly the characteristics of the figure, and that it was a woman [1]).

Hardy, Return of the Native I ch. 2.

3. predicate clauses, i. e. clauses with the function of a nominal predicate.

He is not *what he pretends to be.*

4. Appositional clauses. See 1843 f.

The fact *that the had refused the request* did not make any difference.

5. Adjective (i. e. attributive) clauses.

1) This sentence illustrates the parallelism of the object and the object clause.

It is the best book *we have read on the subject.*
They little knew the man *with whom they had to deal.*

6. Adverb clauses.

While the archbishop was busy with these matters, converts were flocking apace into the Church.
It is not true *though he may have thought so.*

An examination of these compound sentences will show that what is called the principal clause (or head-clause) is frequently no sentence at all. In the cases of (1), for example, it is nothing but a predicate. In those under (2) and (3) we certainly have no sentence either [1]). But there is little objection to the traditional name when the misleading nature of it has been pointed out.

The examples will have shown that the function of these clauses is not dependent upon their form: conjunctive clauses may have any of these six functions, relative and non-connected clauses may have any except the fourth.

Noun Clauses

1912. Object clauses may not only have the function of a direct object but also of a prepositional and a retained object. See 1911 (2); a rare instance is the last quotation of 274.

English has no clauses serving the function of an indirect object, because the relative pronoun, which would open such a sentence, is never used at the beginning of a sentence; see 875, 982, 1111, 1133.

1913. The object clause may refer to a compound verb (verbal phrase), as in the following cases. See 1919.

1) Sentence is here taken in the sense of a combination of a subject with a predicate; see 1826.

As soon as I could make up my mind what had actually happened, I would take Hugh Desprez into my confidence.
de Morgan, Vance ch. 49, p. 491.

Why she thought of him thus suddenly she had no idea [1]).
Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 8.

I give you my bible-word it was Mr. Hyde.
Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

1914. We have seen that both prepositional and non-prepositional adjuncts to adjectives may be looked upon as objects. Accordingly we may speak of object clauses subordinate to an adjective. Adjectives that can take an *of*-adjunct can often be construed with such an object clause. Among them are the adjectives expressing a perception of the senses, a thought, feeling, or wish, e.g. *sure*, *certain*, *aware*, *desirous*, *anxious*, *afraid*.

I am certain that he has done it.

I am afraid you will fail.

We are confident that in this moment of sore trial they will be faithful to the glorious traditions. Times W. 2/11, '17.

Indeed, but for the accident of London auctions or casual visits to the mansions of the great, we might die ignorant that England is the richest portrait storehouse in the world.
Times Lit. 24/7, '19.

He is certain of what he has told you.

1915. Clauses subordinated to the corresponding nouns, or to nouns suggesting transitive verbs, may also be looked upon as object clauses (*a*). Sentences like the one under *b*, though strictly subject-clauses, are really of the same kind.

a. The certainty that he will help us is comforting.

His fear that things may go wrong has no foundation in any known fact.

The hope is expressed that every teacher in Bradford will

1) Compare the first instance of 1925.

use his or her utmost influence to assist the national effort. Times Ed. S. 3/8, '15.

This oppressed her more than wonder who he might be. Peard, Madame p. 55.

While that book tells the tale of how she hunted, the results of the chase are visible to all the world in a special gallery of the Victoria and Albert Museum. Times Lit. 29/7, '15.

b. It is our hope that the best brains of the Conservative party will ponder deeply the situation as it will be then likely to exist.

It is difficult to say whether these clauses should not be rather looked upon as appositional clauses. They differ from the clauses subordinate to an adjective in that they cannot dispense with a connecting word: see 1919. See also 1924 f.

1916. Subject clauses and object clauses are of similar function and structure. Hence they are conveniently grouped together as *noun clauses*. We must include the clauses depending upon a preposition on account of their structure even when they are not object clauses; see 1918.

The distinction between a subject-clause and an object-clause is sometimes purely formal. Thus in the first of the following sentences the introductory object-clause would be a subject-clause if there was no *it* in the principal clause. See 1008 ff.

What the men would have done without them in the dismal weather when to walk out of doors is to wade ankle deep in mud, it is not easy to conjecture. Times 4/12, '14.

How I could be any comfort to my father, struck me with wonder. Mary Lamb, Selected Short Stories II p. 4.

He could have drawn a map of the Orinoco, but he could not have found the Trent in a day's march; he did not even know where his drinking-water came from. That geographical considerations are the cause of all history had never been hinted to him, nor that history bears immediately upon modern life and bore on his own life.

Bennett, Clayhanger I ch. 2 § 2.

1917. Noun clauses are oftenest introduced by the conjunction *that;* they may also open with the relative pronouns, adverbs, and conjunctions (*whether*); see 1124 ff. on *Relative Pronouns.* When the head-clause is negative or interrogative we frequently find *but.*

He always did her good; but that he could do Charlie good, she had long given up hoping.
Phillpotts, Beacon II ch. 10.

Whoever has said it — if any one has, which I doubt — is no friend of mine. C. Brontë, quoted Gaskell, Life ch. 16.

What he did he did well.
Gardiner and M., Introduction p. 39.

How stubborn the contest was may be seen from the fact that it took sixty years to complete the conquest of Southern Britain alone. Green, Short Hist. p. 10.

To what extent the British population had disappeared is a matter of controversy. Gardiner and M., Introd. p. 16.

Whether it will amuse the German professors is not easy to say. Times Lit. 2/12, '15.

Who knows but he may hear of it?

I do not doubt but he will agree to it.

1918. Prepositional noun-clauses may have a relative (interrogative) pronoun, adverb, or conjunction (*a*). When the clause depends upon verbs, a provisional *it* with the conjunction *that* is sometimes used (*b*); occasionally the preposition disappears (*c*). See also 1015 f. When the clause depends upon a noun or adjective the preposition invariably disappears, apart from the case under *a;* see 1914. A comparison of the last two quotations (*d*) may be instructive.

a. Who this mysterious wife might be faded into insignificance before the wonder of where she was.
Gaskell, Wives II p. 20.

It is well to be reminded of how eventful the earlier months were. Times, Lit. 12/8, '15.

He was far too certain of the future to worry much about what anyone said. Waugh, Loom of Youth III, ch. 8.

She had grown so deaf that what was repeated to her became known to whoever might be in or about the house. Gaskell, Life of C. Brontë ch. 5.

b. Italy may rely upon it that she will not be left unaided. Times W. 2/11, '17.

c. Voltaire boasted that if he shook his wig the powder flew over the whole of the tiny republic. Morley, Voltaire (Oxf. Dict.).

d. I could say "the Hon. Mr. John Trent" if I liked, but father does not care about its being dragged in everywhere. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 1.

This was very nice for father and mother and me, and I did not care how often it happened. id. ib.

1919. Noun-clauses, except those subordinate to nouns (1915) and the prepositional noun-clauses (1911), when *following* their head-clause, may stand without any conjunction [1]). This is only possible, however, when the noun-clause follows without a break (*a*). If there is a break, e.g. because the last part of the head-clause is very emphatic, a connecting word is necessary (*b*).

It also seems that retained object clauses require a conjunction when the head-clause has a formal subject *it* (*c*).

a. I fear it may be true.
It is clear he does not want to go.
I expect he will come.
I wish you wouldn't do that.
He said he would come.
I am glad you think so too.
I am sure he did not want it.
I said I thought the Lippingtons would be very popular indeed. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 14.

---

1) For this reason the two last instances of 1913 should be interpreted as direct object clauses, not as prepositional object clauses.

b. It is but too true that men of the highest genius have frequently been hurried by their passions into a violation of prudence and duty. Jeffrey, On Burns.

c. Such is the novel; and it is held that this description of it applies only to the novel of the last two centuries, not to any of the various forms of story-telling that preceded it. Times Lit. 13/11, 24.

1920. If two coordinate noun clauses have the same subject no conjunction is necessary (*a*). If the first noun clause has *that* the second generally does not repeat it (*b*). But *that* must be used before the second clause if this has a different subject from the first (*c*). Similarly noun clauses with a pronoun or adverb (which, naturally, cannot be left out because it forms part of the clause) must repeat the connecting pronoun or adverb when the subjects differ (*d*). Sometimes *that* is substituted in the second clause to show the subordination (*e*); see 1956 [1]).

a. I believe he is well, and planning an excursion.

b. She thought, quite rightly, that it ought to do us an enormous amount of good, and have no end of an effect in drawing closer the ties that bind. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 17.

c. I think he will come and that all will be settled amicably.

d. I don't remember what I said and what was said by the others.

e. I cannot say whether he inherited his feeling for rank from Mel, his father, or that the Countess had succeeded in instilling it. Meredith, Harrington ch. 23.

Direct and Indirect style

1921. Object clauses may report a person's words or thoughts in two ways:

1. by repeating them without any change.

John said: "William is not here."
John said: "I shan't go before ten."

1) The Oxford Dict. s.v. *that* calls this construction 'rare or archaic.'

This is called direct style. For further examples see the chapter on *Word-Order*.

2. by repeating the words or thought in the form of a subordinate clause.

John said (that) William was not here.
John said (that) he shouldn't go before ten.

This is called indirect style. The persons and tenses of the verb undergo many changes which it seems unnecessary to discuss in detail. The points that concern the verb have been mentioned in the first volume.

In spoken English direct and indirect style are often mixed, the wordorder of direct style being combined with the pronouns and tenses of indirect style.

He asked me would I lend him my umbrella.

I wonder was he ever so truly great, so entirely the man we know and love, as when he inspired the chiefs to make a highway in the wilderness. Fairless, Road-Mender V.

1922. We sometimes find a person's words or thoughts in what may be called semi-indirect style [1]). In this case there is no introductory sentence to show that we have reported speech or thought, but it is shown by the tense of the verb (*a*), or by the auxiliary (*b*). Examples of semi-indirect style are to be found in 705.

a. He shook Max's hand and departed singing a *chanson d' atelier*, which echoed long in the young man's ears. Was it possible that he (i. e. the young man himself) had learned in London, during those dreary hours of toil, what he had

1) It seems most convenient to treat this here, although it is evident that we have no subordinate clauses here. Even in the case of 1921 (1) there is no real subordination; this explains why there is no corresponding subject-clause with the verb in the passive. We cannot say "*Come in,*" *was called out by somebody.* See 2019.

failed to learn in Paris? Application! Yes. But would he have so applied himself without Pretty? Was not she entitled to the credit? Had she not spurred him to his daily toil, till it became a habit, almost, a necessity?....

Vachell, Pinch of Prosperity ch. 23.

"I wrote you six letters."

"I never got them. I expect my aunt wouldn't allow them to be forwarded."

Vibart *was sure* that Jasmine was misjudging her. No one, *could have been* more auxious to help him find Jasmine. Why, she had taken the trouble to write to Mrs. Grave-Smith for his address, had asked him to lunch and then volunteered Jasmine's address, and, what is more, advised him to go and call on her. Mackenzie, Rich Relatives ch. 6.

b. And if Grandmamma should die? Why then in this great house she, Mary Flower, *should* be all alone.

id. Seven Ages of Woman ch. 3.

Sometimes indirect and semi-indirect speech are found in the same report; it is also impossible, in some cases, to decide whether we have semi-indirect speech or an author speaking for himself.

1923. Semi-indirect style by repeating a question[1]) occurs frequently.

Scrooge knew he was dead? Of course he did.

Dickens, Christmas Carol st. 1.

Then with his watch still in his hand, he went up to the policeman, asked him if he knew what the time was. "What's the time?" said the man, eyeing George up and down with evident suspicion; "why, if you listen you will hear it strike."

Jerome, Boat ch. 11.

"I like you!" returned Aunt Bel, nodding at him. "Where

1) In talking there is a difference between the two questions. For the direct interrogative sentence, being pronominal, has a falling intonation; when reported, however, the intonation is rising, and the pronoun has a stronger stress. See 2008.

do you come from? A young man who'll let himself go for small coin's a jewel worth knowing."

"Where do I come from?" drawled Laxley.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 16.

Would I live it over again, that life of the garret, and the cellar? Not with the assurance of fifty years' contentment such as I now enjoy, to follow it. Gissing, Ryecroft XI.

She smiled. "But how did you know I was in the siege of Paris?" she asked, curious. "How do I know? I know because I've seen that birthday card ye sent to Mrs. Povey in 1871, after it was over."

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 3, § 2.

A maid came in now with a blue silk gown very thick and soft. Could she do anything for Miss Freeland? No, thanks, she could not; only, did she know where Mr. Freeland's room was? Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 5, p. 51.

"Are you cold?" she asked, seeing the new situation of the table.

"Am I cold!" Edwin repeated.

Bennett, These Twain III ch. 18 § 1 [1]).

"I have found you a gown after all."

"Where is it?"

"Where is it?" her uncle repeated. "Why, waiting upstairs in your bedroom, of course, for you to put it on....

Mackenzie, Rich Relatives ch. 12, p. 298.

Predicate Clauses

1924. Predicate clauses are always introduced by a relative word (*a*). In the case of sentences of the type illustrated under (*b*), it seems more natural to speak of an object clause or appositional clause; see 1915 and 1925.

a. Many of these poems are in English what Baudelaire and Verlaine are in French.

Williams, Mod. Engl. Writers, p. 22.

1) Also ib. III ch. 18 § 3 (Conard p. 160) and ib. I ch. 2 (p. 21).

The history of our country... tells us how our fathers before us became what they were...
Stubbs, Lect. Early Engl. Hist. p. 1.

They looked what they were — the sisters, the wives, the mothers of strong men. Vachell, Quinneys' p. 42.

But his work was not what he conceived it.
Times Lit. 29/3, '18.

They thought that the world would remain what they and their fathers had known it.
Trevelyan, British History p. XIV.

This is natural and as it should be. Times Lit. 19/10, 22.

b. How they spent the time did not seem to be certainly known, but the impression was that politics occupied them.
Bennett, Old W. Tale I, ch. 2 § 1.

The question, however, is not simply whether a knowledge of ancient Greece is necessary for a complete understanding of our parent civilization. Times Lit. 23/2, 22.

What we have to consider is how and whether we can retain it. Observer, 29/1, 22.

The fact was that Yeobright's fame had spread to an awkward extent before be left home.
Hardy, Return of the Native III ch. 1.

It may be added that English predicate clauses are always equivalent to a nominal predicate; English has no clauses corresponding to a predicative adjunct to an object (*I saw him coming*): there is no English parallel to such French clauses as *Je le vois qui vient*, *Je sens la faim qui monte.*

Appositional Clauses

1925. Appositional clauses may be subordinate to a pronoun, although subordination to a noun is far more common. Their relation to object clauses has been mentioned in 1915. The appositional clauses always have the conjunction *that.* Both these appositional clauses and the clauses mentioned in 1914 f.

are sometimes called *clauses of contents:* they express the contents of the idea expressed by the adjective or noun in the headclause.

He had an idea that perhaps it would be best to say several things which might prepare Cedric for meeting his grandfather [1]). Burnett, Fauntleroy ch. 2.

The first thing that strikes one on looking at it (viz. Magna Charta) is that it is a very long document — and a good deal of its importance consists in this, that it is minute and detailed [2]). Maitland, Const. Hist. p. 15.

The fact that so long a time had passed since Blanche had received news from her father, was beginning to cause her grave anxiety. Buchanan, That Winter Night ch. 9.

The news which one day reached Gabriel, that Bathsheba Everdene had left the neighbourhood, had an influence upon him.... Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. 5.

Adjective Clauses

1926. The relations of adjective clauses to their headword are various, like the relations of attributive adjuncts to their headword. One distinction applies to both adjective clauses and attributive adjuncts, although it is of grammatical importance only in the case of the clauses: they may be *restrictive* or *continuative*. A clause (or adjunct) is said to be restrictive when it serves to express a quality distinguishing the headword from others. The continuative clause (or adjunct) gives incidental information about the headword which is not subordinate to the rest of the sentence but of equal weight. The result is that a continuative clause has the function of a coordinate sentence.

1) This clause resembles those of 1913. But the connecting *that* cannot be omitted here: this shows that the relation to the headclause is different.

2) *This* may also be looked upon as a provisional pronoun. See 1914, and 1967.

1927. The coordinate character of continuative clauses is very clear from the construction of the following sentences.

He (viz. Walter Scott) received valuable suggestions from the remarkable young borderer, John Leyden, to whom, and also, to William Laidlaw, his future steward, and to James Hogg, he was further indebted for several ballad versions.

Camb. Hist. Eng. Lit. XII, 5.

She (George Eliot) was much attracted by the novels of Kingsley, between whose genius and his faults she drew a drastic contrast. Ward, Camb. Hist. Eng. Lit. XIII p. 384.

Hector is quoted as the great hero of the Troy story, from which, and from the legends of Arthur, the Middle Ages drew their models of valour.

Sisam, Fourteenth Century Prose and Verse p. 219.

1928. In form continuative clauses are distinguished from restrictive clauses by the pause preceding them, whereas restrictive clauses follow their antecedent without any break.

When the relation between the clause and its antecedent is final the auxiliary *shall* is used; sometimes it is rather conditional. Examples of both in 733, 2. A classification into relative clauses of purpose, condition, etc. would therefore be possible.

We are much nearer a definite discussion of the peace which shall end this war.

President Wilson, Times W. 26/1, '17.

He would be a bold man who should declare that its popularity has very materially diminished at the present day.

Ward, Dickens, ch. 2, p. 20.

1929. It is important to remember that the classification of adjective clauses into restrictive and continuative clauses is not exhaustive: there are adjective clauses which are neither restrictive nor continuative.

I shall ask him if the Council of Trent that he is always appealing to, says anything about the Catholic laity.

Benson, Initiation.

Take your hated body, that I love, out of my house.
Galsworthy, Man of Property.

Barbara wondered whether she would have the physical strength to continue as a small wheel in this large machine, that so frequently went mad. Pett Ridge, Nine to Six-Thirty.

The cases (quoted by Mr. Fijn van Draat, *Neophilologus* IV, 49 f. as examples of continuative clauses) are evidently not coordinate in meaning, but rather express cause or reason, in the second quotation mixed with concession. They are related to adverb clauses (with the conjunctions *as,* and *even though*). Similarly we neither have continuative nor restrictive clauses in the following:

Mrs. Carnaby was helped out of the trap; then Miss Carnaby was lifted out by Mr. Hodges; then the children were lifted out by the mother; and then the nurse, an awkward, plain girl that nobody helped, tumbled out by herself.
Sweet, Element., no. 75.

There is a step behind us, and it is her husband — I am not quite unconscious of a kind of relief at the great strong man that has seen so many die.
de Morgan, Vance ch. 46, p. 471.

Architecture, for instance, could not exist without engineering, which tells the architect what he may venture to do and what he may not. Times Lit. 2/11, 22.

If we bear in mind that there are three kinds of adjective clauses we may keep to the old rule: that in restrictive clauses we especially find *that*, further also *who* and *which;* and that in continuative clauses *that* is not used but only *who* and *which* (apart from certain adverbs or conjunctions). In clauses that are neither restrictive nor continuative, all of these introductory words are used.

1930. When a clause is introduced by *as* it is sometimes hard to say whether it should be looked upon as an adjective clause, or as an adverb clause (of result) qualifying *such.*

I have also thought it expedient to restrict myself still further, having abstained from the use of many expressions in themselves proper and beautiful, but which have been foolishly repeated by bad poets, till such feelings of disgust are connected with them as it is scarcely possible by any art of association to overpower.

Wordsworth, quoted Magnus, Primer p. 89.

My father gave him such a cut with his whip as roused him to an abnormal liveliness. Hole, Memories p. 278.

One great delight, yet untouched on, Alfred Ainger had in London: he was an impassioned playgoer, to such plays as suited his taste. Life of Ainger p. 111.

Compare the following adverb clause qualifying *so*.

Nor had this life been by any means so outwardly singular and romantic, or peripatetic, as his fond critics had done him the honour to imagine.

Introd. to Borrow's Lavengro, Everyman p. VIII.

1931. Adjective clauses of all kinds are very frequently connected with the noun they refer to by means of a relative pronoun or adverb. Hence adjective clauses are often called relative clauses (1022 f., 1122 ff. and 1189 f.). It should be remembered, however, that relative clauses are not necessarily adjective clauses, as has been shown sufficiently in the chapter on *Relative Pronouns*, and in the sections on noun-clauses. Neither are adjective clauses always relative clauses, as will appear from the following sections.

1932. Restrictive clauses are also introduced by *as*. If the clause is negative we may find *but*. See *Relative Pronouns* in the first volume.

Unconnected Restrictive Clauses

1933. It is very usual for restrictive adjective clauses to follow their headword without any connecting word. This construction is frequent

in spoken English when the headword is the object [1] (*a*), the nominal predicate (*b*), an adverb adjunct (*c*) or a predicative adjunct (*d*) of the adjective clause.

a. But the most important work he did for Hampstead lay in the impetus he gave to its concerts.

Life of Ainger p. 121.

Bacon shows that it is only by the use of patient observation and experiment that we can verify the knowledge we already possess and learn the secrets of the earth we live upon.

Sefton Delmer, Eng. Lit. p. 76.

I got down the book and read all I came to read.

Jerome, Three Men in a Boat, ch. 1.

They afflict the world because they will attempt that it is given to none but noble workmen to achieve [2].

Meredith, Letters in Scribner's Mag. Aug. 1912.

In England Burns's audience was limited, for the English could not easily understand the language he wrote in.

Sefton Delmer, Eng. Lit. p. 127.

And that's a man they believe things of.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 8 p. 96.

b. His literary and philosophical essays seemed rather to mark him out as the disciple of M. Taine than as the Catholic protagonist he was soon to become.

Mrs. H. Ward, Harper's Magaz. May 1918.

"And what's a gentleman, mademoiselle?"

Can't tell you, Don Doloroso. Something you are, sir," she added, surveying him. Meredith, Harrington ch. 4.

Your father is not the man he was.

Cannan, Round the Corner p. 76.

Even his dog could see the sort of man he was.

Galsworthy, Fraternity ch. 3.

It is said that St. Leger Day [3] is not the important social event it used to be. Times 12/9, 1913.

---

1) Both prepositional and non-prepositional.

2) Note that we have the stressed demonstrative *that* [ðæt] in this sentence, not the relative pronoun.

3) Day on which there are horse-races at St. Leger in the North of England.

They are both most admirable devices, worthy of the great poet he was. Paton, Classical Rev. 27, p. 46.

c. Play (i. e. gambling) should be reserved for the old — the old get so quickly deadened, they do not go through the terrible moments younger people do. Lowndes, Chink ch. 2.

This makes one shudder at the mysterious ways girls acquire knowledge. Conrad, Chance p. 283.

A very dramatic account has leaked out of the way the Kissingen interview was received by M. Monis, who was French Prime Minister at the time. Daily News, 1911.

In its relation to France, Paris occupies an altogether unique position. It is the one centre of national life in a sense no other capital is. Everyman 30/5, 1913.

d. You have found him not to be the saint you thought him. Hardy, Return of the Native II ch. 2.

1934. The construction is also common when the headword is the subject of the adjective clause, but only when it is introduced by *it (this, that) is,* etc., or *there is,* etc. (*a*). We also find the construction when the adjective clause contains *there is,* etc. (*b*). See below on *Apparent Compound Sentences.*

a. It's a bad business brings me, young man.
Meredith, Harrington ch. 4.

Grandpa, what is it makes your eyes so bright and blue like the sky? Gilbert Cannan, Round the Corner ch. 34.

I sometimes wonder who it is makes the fashions.

'Ah,' she said to herself, 'want of object to live for — that's all is the matter with me?
Hardy, Return of the Native II ch. 4.

"Don't try to tell me your grandfather did all that," protested Wyckoff. "There were a lot of others helped. I read about it in a book." Scribner's Magaz. Aug. 1912.

"I am not happy here."

"And would you be happier at Boxall Hill? It is not the place makes the happiness." Trollope, Dr. Thorne p. 354.

If you are out of the way there's no one else can state that I shot Pine. Fergus Hume, Red Money p. 299.

b. This is, I believe, the best handbook there is to Latin syntax. Classical Rev. 25, p. 27.

His (i.e. Johnson's) table-talk inspired the best biography there is in English Literature — *Boswell's Life of Johnson.* Sefton Delmer, Eng. Lit. p. 103.

It is one of the best examples there are of sustained irony. ib. p. 110.

She was anxious to make what amends she could in the short time there was left to her. Patterson, Compton p. 360.

Blackwood's Magazine was lent them by a neighbour, and the children had been taught to regard it with veneration as "the most able periodical there is."

Flora Masson, The Brontë's p. 25.

1935. Adjective clauses without any connecting word are also frequent in poetry.

In archaic English we have a similar case to the one in 1934*a*: the position of the subject is such that it stands midway.

Till rose in arm each man—might claim
A portion in Clan-Alpine's name.

Scott, Lady of the Lake III, 24.

1936. In the following quotation the headword (*corpse*) is the subject of the clause *is there.* The construction is naturally avoided in written English.

You need observe no period of mourning for a corpse people don't know is there.

Fräulein Schmidt and Mr. Anstruther p. 21.

1937. It is rare for the construction to occur when the headword is an adjunct (with a preposition) to a verb with an object in the adjective clause.

Such was the man they wanted to make first an engineer and then a lawyer of. Everyman 15/11, 12.

The construction seems possible here, if rather peculiar, because *man* can be looked upon as the object of *make an engineer of.* No construction without a relative pronoun would

be possible in the following: *It was the man whose book I had reviewed.*

The construction is also somewhat peculiar, although not so exceptional, when the adjective clause itself is a compound clause.

> It was really complicated with emotion and and excitement in a way I don't know whether I can describe.
>
> Cotes, Cinderella ch. 3.

Relation of antecedent to adjective clause

1938. It has been shown that the headword followed by an adjective clause may serve as a subject, nominal predicate, object, adverb adjunct, predicative adjunct, and attributive adjunct to the adjective clause. It may be pointed out, although many of the examples have shown it quite clearly, that the headword may have these functions with regard to a single word in the adjective clause. Thus, when it is an object, this may mean the object of an infinitive or gerund as well as of the finite verb in the clause. For examples see the preceding sections, also those on *Relative Pronouns*, and on *Word-Order*.

It is unusual to speak of the function of a word in the headclause with regard to the subordinate clause. The reason for doing it in the case of unconnected adjective clauses is that the noun does not really belong to the headclause only but equally to the adjective clause. For this reason it is called a construction *ἀπὸ κοινοῦ*, i. e. the two clauses have the headword "in common" [1]). This explains why the headword must precede the adjective clause without a break: the construction is therefore limited to restrictive clauses and the apparent compound clauses of 1934. It also explains the

1) The *ἀπὸ κοινοῦ* character of the construction is very evident in the following instance where it has prevented the repetition of the preposition *with* in the subordinate clause.

> Never again could she treat anyone with the scorn she had treated Michael. Mackenzie, Sylvia p. 363.

restriction of 1934: it is only in those cases that the noun can be looked upon as part of the headclause and the adjective clause. The construction would be impossible in the following quotation for the same reason:

> But there were various people we had known in Ottawa whom we hoped to see again. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 5.

Neither could the relative pronoun be dispensed with in the last sentence of 1937, because the adjective clause would require the form *man's*.

The construction is also impossible when the headword has the function of a *prepositional* adverb adjunct [1]), as in the sentence mentioned by Sweet: *Observe the dignity with which he rises.* It may be questioned, however, if we have a real adjective clause here. The real thing to be observed is the *rising*, not *dignity*. The relation of what is formally the headword and the adjective clause may be compared with such *of-* adjuncts as *the frankness of his answer;* see 1454 ff., also 2219. But we have a real adjective clause in the following instance, where an unconnected clause would seem to be equally impossible:

> He had been a lad of whom something was expected. Hardy, Return of the Native III ch. 1.

Adverb Clauses

1939. According to their meaning adverb clauses may be classified as follows, although the classification does not claim to be exhaustive:

1. clauses of **time.**

   When you called me I was quite ready.

   We had many a pleasant reunion. Whenever we met he invited me to his house. Hole, Mem. p. 83.

2. clauses of **place.**

   Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.

1) The construction is very frequent when the headword has the function of a prepositional object.

3. clauses of **cause or reason.**

I am sure of it because he told me.

I smiled that he talked so boastfully.

I am sorry that you cannot come.

They are convenient in that they enable a writer to localize a point of view [1]). Brewster, Writing of English p. 33.

The method has a drawback in that it tends to bring a wave of uncertainty into a region to which we should otherwise turn, and perhaps rightly turn, as the source of our solidest experience. Times Lit. 13/12, 23.

4. clauses of **purpose.**

I tell you all this that you may take your measures accordingly.

I feared lest he should escape me.

5. clauses of **result.**

He is so tired that he cannot speak.

Justice was never done but some one complained.

There never was a Samson so strong but he met his Delilah.

All this seemed very pleasant, and Madame appeared goodness itself; and the teachers not so bad, but they might be worse. Brontë, Vilette ch. 8.

Molly was not so much absorbed in listening but that she could glance round the room. Gaskell, Wives I ch. 6.

6. clauses of **condition.**

If you have told him you should be ashamed of yourself.

If and when the country considers it worth while to pay the price for making education a better profession, a larger number of the best men will take to it. Spectator 10/11, '17.

Herein I should have succeeded and gone home, and then been angry at my want of courage, but that on the very turn and bending of my footsteps, the woman in the distance lifted up her staff to me; so that I was bound to stop.

Lorna Doone ch. 18.

---

1) The conjunction does not distinctly express cause; there is a blending of cause and restriction.

7. clauses of **concession.**

I will help you though you do not deserve it.

His heroines are invariably fresh, healthy girls, and if they are not complex, they are at least straightforward.

Everyman 24/1, '13.

Poor as they were they had won the general respect of the neighbourhood.

But you are hardly acquainted with our Darshire fellows, for all you're a Darshire man yourself.

Gaskell, North and South ch. 42.

8. clauses of **comparison.**

It is not so easy as you think.

It is easier than you think.

"George," said the shopman, concealing his anger as best he could, "show this gentleman out."

The cold was growing sharper as the night wore on.

He (O'Connell) was certainly a more ardent admirer and a more genuine disciple of Bentham than were many Whigs.

Dicey, Law and Opinion p. 177.

He knew far more of the world outspread beneath them than did Charles. Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 5.

As it was with the clergy so it was with the baronage.

Gardiner and M., Introd. p. 79.

Poodle's [1]), it was said, would sell their souls and bodies to lower Billy's [1]) pride, and Billy's would sell theirs as cheerfully rather than Poodle's should triumph.

Vachell, Brothers vol. 2 ch. 2.

9. clauses of **manner.**

I have done it as it should be done.

10. clauses of **restriction.**

He has paid all the bills, as far as I know.

He is not here, that I can learn. Oxf. Dict.

No one knows anything about it, that I can find. ib.

---

1) A football-club.

Nevertheless, the official statement issued this morning is a matter for general satisfaction, in that it marks a definite stage in the process of giving the Air Services their true position in the national equipment. Times W. 30/11, '17.

He was fortunate in that he never had to direct forlorn hopes or to wage desperate fights against heavy odds.
ib. 23/11, '17.

1940. The exact function of adverb clauses is generally shown, apart from the context, by the connecting word that is used: adverbs or pronouns. When the clause is introduced by a pure conjunction the function is often made clear by the tense or mood of the finite verb, or by an auxiliary. Word-order may also help to express the function, especially when there is no connecting word.

1941. Clauses of time are most frequently introduced by *when*, *whenever*, *as*, *as soon as*, *before*, *after*, *while*, *whilst*, *since*, *until*, *now* (*that*), also by the correlatives *no sooner ... than*, *scarcely ... when*, *hardly ... when*.

Clauses of place generally open with a relative adverb: *where*, *whence*, *whither*, also *wherever*, *wheresoever*, etc.

Clauses of cause or reason may be introduced by *because*, *as*, *in that*. When they have the conjunction *that* it is not always clear whether we have an adverb or an object clause, as in the fourth of the examples of 1939, 3.

Clauses of purpose are introduced by *that*, *so that*, *in order that*, and *lest*. The last quotation of 1939, 4 may also be taken for an example of an object clause [1]).

Clauses of result generally have *that* with a correlative *so*, *such*, etc. in the head-clause, or *so that*. When the headclause is negative we also find *but* and *but that* in a consecutive function. Clauses with the correlatives *so*, *such* also express degree.

1) The use of *should*, however, would seem to point to the former interpretation.

Clauses of condition may be introduced by *if, unless;* with a negative headclause we also find *but, but that.*

Clauses of concession are introduced by *although, though, if,* and by the compound relatives. When there is front position of part of the predicate we find the simple relatives and *as, how, though* (not *although*), *if* [1]).

Clauses of comparison are expressed by the correlatives *as ... as, not so .... as,* or the simple *than* (with a comparative in the headclause). Proportional comparison may be expressed by *the .... the.* A rejected comparison may be expressed by *as if.*

Clauses of manner generally take *as.*

Clauses of restriction may be introduced by *as far as,* or by *that, in that.*

1942. If clauses of time (with *when*) or condition or concession (with *if*) precede the headclause, the latter occasionally, but rarely, open with the correlative *then,* which is usually emphatic.

> When a man is a complete master of his subject, a clear thinker, and a vigorous writer, and when he applies these qualities to the enthusiastic advocacy of a practical and highly important object, then he produces something of real value.
>
> Times Lit. 18/5, '16.

> If it be a distinct point of wisdom to hug the hour that is, then does dinner amount to a highly intellectual invitation to man, for it furnishes the occasion.
>
> Meredith, Harrington ch. 31.

> If much of "Michael Field's" poetry has suffered from a certain oppression of loneliness, then the strength of the plays has sprung from the capacity for intellectual judgment only to be acquired by the solitary. Times Lit. 28/8, '19.

---

1) The reason for using *though* only, not *although*, is that a weak-stressed word is required in this position ; this is also why the simple pronouns are used.

Clauses of Cause

1943. Clauses of cause introduced by *because* are very closely related in meaning to sentences connected with the preceding sentence by *for*.

1. I am sure of it because he told me.
2. I am sure of it, for he told me.

When we compare the two sentences it is evident, however, that in the first sentence the part introduced by *because* is logically dependent upon what precedes: it is a part of a *compound* sentence. In the second the part introduced by *for* is logically of the same rank as the preceding: it is an independent sentence, and the whole group is a *double* sentence. The coordinative character of *for* is unmistakably shown by the fact that it cannot stand before the first sentence. Note also the difference in intonation. See also 1990.

Clauses of Result

1944. Clauses of result sometimes have no introductory conjunction.

> The boys have a very good time of it: lemonade and cake handed round during lessons. In fact, the young rascals get so pampered they don't care to go home.
>
> Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 94.

The rising intonation at the end of the first clause proves that we have a compound sentence.

Clauses of Condition

1945. Clauses of condition are of two kinds: 1. those which do not imply an answer to the question regarding the fulfilment of the condition (clauses of *open condition*).

If you are right I am wrong.
If he should come tell him to wait.
If I have offended you by saying that I am very sorry.

2. those which imply non-fulfilment of the condition, or at least that fulfilment is (or was) unlikely (clauses of *rejected condition*).

If I had time I should be pleased to go too.
If I had had time I should have been pleased to go too.

1946. In clauses of open condition we always use the plain indicative when nothing is implied about the fulfilment of the condition.

I shall be very pleased if you succeed.
If he told you he could not go it must have been on account of his wife, who is seriously ill.

When a writer wants to emphasize his uncertainty as to the fulfilment of a condition, we also find *shall* and the subjunctive, chiefly in literary English [1]). Uncertainty can also be emphasized by strong stress on the conjunction, which is especially found when the adverb clause repeats the verb of the headclause.

It would be unjust to say that Lady Lufton had determined not to invite the Robartses if she were not allowed to have her own way about Sarah Thompson. Trollope, Framley ch. 1.
Some modern philosophers teach that freedom exists in art. Artists and poets assent, if they assent, much less confidently. Times Lit. 23/8, '18.

1947. In clauses of rejected condition the modal preterite and pluperfect are used, also the preterite subjunctive *were* (235). The verb in the principal clause is in a (modal) past future tense (with *should*, *would*) or it is accompanied by the preterite of one of the auxiliaries discussed in 605.

The same construction is also used by way of a polite expression of a wish.

Mr. Milford would greatly be obliged if a copy of any review that may be published were sent to him at the above address. (Notice accompanying a book sent for review).

---

1) See also 233.

1948. Clauses of rejected condition sometimes have no introductory word, see 243 and 606.

Conditional clauses of *open* condition without an introductory word are rare. They are probably mistaken imitations of the construction for clauses of rejected condition.

> On Sundays and Holy Days he (i. e. a man in the Middle Ages) attended matins, mass, and evensong at his parish church. Was he a townsman and a member of the guild of his craft or his calling, he was admitted with religious ceremonies.... Wakeman, Introduction p. 178.
>
> Are you, without much offending, sacrificed by them, it is on the altar of their mutual love...
>
> Meredith, Egoist p. 398.

1949. It is not always clear whether a clause is one of condition or of time (*a*). Hence, also, *so long as* may be equivalent to 'if only' (*b*). We also find *so that* as a conditional conjunction (*c*).

> *a.* If she laughed, the tinge of mourning lent her laughter new charms. If she sighed, the exuberant array of her apparel bade the spectator be of good cheer. Was she witty, men surrendered reason and adored her.
>
> Meredith, Harrington ch. 30, p. 313.
>
> *b.* We don't care who does it, so long as it is done.
>
> Pilot 2/4, 1904.
>
> *c.* The word might be provincial, it might be derived from the Latin; so that it accurately represented her idea she did not mind whence it came.

Clauses of Concession

1950. Clauses of concession are of three kinds:

1. of admitted concession.

> If an advance needs careful organization, still more does a retreat of the kind we are witnessing. Times W. 9 3, '17.
>
> Incomplete though it was, Sir Francis Palgrave appears to

have regarded the "History of Normandy and of England" as, logically, the introduction to his earlier writings.
Times Lit. 22/5, '19.

2. of open concession (*a*), often with the express mention of two alternatives (*b*).

a. Though he may have spoken the truth I can hardly think it probable.

b. Whether or not we agree with all he says, the reasonableness and force of his arguments must be admitted.
Times Ed. S. 1/2, '16.

Here, wake at what hour I may, early or late, I lie amid gracious stillness. Gissing, Ryecroft XXIII.

3. of rejected concession, including the case, that the speaker expresses improbability rather than rejection. See 234.

1951. The clauses of admitted concession differ from the other two kinds in never taking a subjunctive. Indeed, the subjunctive is sometimes the only means of distinguishing them. Compare the examples introduced by *however* in 234 and 241 (respectively illustrating open and rejected concession) with the following example of admitted concession.

But however easily the system may be explained or paralleled, there can be no doubt as to its iniquity.
Wakeman, Introd. p. 421.

The difference may also be denoted by auxiliaries of modality; see 699, 4*b* and 737, 2*c*.

1952. Concessive clauses are frequently found without any introductory word as shown in the sections on the subjunctive (234, 244). But they occur also with the verb in the indicative; in this case the wordorder must show the character of the clause.

Mr. Gibson bowed, much pleased at such a compliment from such a man, was he lord or not. Gaskell, Wives II p. 114.

1953. Clauses of admitted concession are frequently difficult to distinguish from clauses of condition. Both may be introduced by *if*.

We have become inured to the strain of war; and if we have been sorely tried, we have been immeasurably strengthened. Morning Post 5/8, '16.

If he was not himself a great thinker or critic, he excelled as a teacher and preacher in cultivating the habit of moral thoughtfulness. Camb. Hist. Eng. Lit. XII, 287.

Clauses of Comparison

1954. Clauses of comparison frequently share a part of the sentence with the headclause (*a*). But these clauses may have a complete form, in which case clauses after a comparative generally have the conjunction *than that* (*b*). But compare the last instance of of 1939,8.

a. It is hoped that Part II will appeal to a wider public than can reasonably be expected to read the complete volume. W. Perrett, Some Questions of Phonetics I Preface.

The lawyer liked this letter well enough: it put a better colour on the intimacy than be had looked for. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

They were as bad as could be [1]). Peter Pan.

b. I would rather go home than that he should accompany us.

Is it better that ten criminals should escape than that one innocent man should be condemned.

On *as*-clauses see 1930. See also the chapter on *Relative Pronouns* in Volume I. and 1934.

1955. The construction without a subject might be possible in the first of the two following quotations, but not in the second, where the comparative clause contains a copula only, not a full verb.

To read it with the care that it needs and deserves requires more patience and time than it is given to many to bestow. Times Lit. 22/6, '16.

1) We sometimes find: *as bad as bad could be.*

American sentiment, he assures us, has never been more pronounced against Germany than it is to-day.

Times 24/7, '15.

1956. In clauses of proportional comparison we sometimes find *that* after the first comparative (*a*), or, at least, one of the comparatives forming the first member of the proportion (*b*). *That* serves to make the subordination of the first part evident; see 1920*e*.

a. The longer that Michael was in the company of Lily and Sylvia, the less he was able to ask the direct questions that would have been comparatively easy at the beginning.

Sinister Street p. 1010.

... the sad mood that makes one feel that the closer that one gazes into the sorrowful texture of the world, the more glad we may well be to depart.

Benson, Thread of Gold p. 47.

b. But it is the truth; and the more we can make it our own, the deeper that we can set it in our trivial spirits, the better are we prepared to learn the lesson ... ib. p. 51.

1957. Clauses with *than* subordinate to a comparative with *no* in the head clause do not really express comparison. After *no more* the *than*-clause serves to confirm a negation. See 618, 621, 1040, and 1351.

Continuative Clauses

1958. Just as we have seen that there are continuative adjective clauses, i. e. clauses that are like adjective clauses in form but coordinate in their function, we may distinguish continuative adverb clauses of time. The distinction has been found grammatically useful in the discussion of the tenses (95). See 1988.

Parenthetic and Appended Sentences

1959. When a sentence is inserted into another without altering its structure it is called a parenthetic sentence.

"But here," I added hastily as Towse (the servant) loomed in the doorway, "is the tea-cake, and here — that's splendid — is Graham." Cotes, Cinderella ch. 12.

Closely related are the coordinate clauses with *as*, such as the following. See also 1988 and 1991.

An index has been added, the pagination, as will be seen, being continuous throughout. In Praise of Oxford II Preface.

The languid dulness of their mamma did not, as it may be supposed, awake much affection in her little daughter.
Thackeray, Vanity Fair.

1960. The following quotations also illustrate what may be called parenthetic clauses.

Even in morning dress he unconsciously contrived, born actor as he was, to have something unusual about him.
Ward, Dickens p. 87.

A few months after Andersen — poor little forlorn adventurer that he was — left that city. Gosse, Northern Studies.

1961. Closely related to the parenthetic clauses are such as are added at the end; they are called *appended* clauses.

It's past ten, I think.

I think just the reverse, you know.
Galsworthy, Freelands, ch. 12, p. 145.

You won't get there in time, I'm afraid.

Take account of that, it is said, and you will at once see why Shakespeare and his contemporaries wrote a particular kind of verse, a special form of prose.
Edinb. Rev., April 1908.

And he's a dear himself, don't you think?
Cotes, Cinderella ch. 14.

1962. Such sentences differ very little from compound sentences with an object clause when there is no connecting word: *I think it's past ten*, etc. The chief difference is that in the case of the appended sentence there is a clear break

between the two sentences, whereas the non-connected object clauses show none. It should also be observed that the order of the two clauses is different in the two cases, and that this affects the meaning of the whole sentence.

1963. There are also sentences with an appended subject. As a rule the complete sentence precedes with a personal pronoun for its subject, and an appended noun-subject follows (*a*). The construction is really identical with the one in which the subject is added parenthetically (*b*). Sometimes both subjects are pronouns (*c*).

a. He knew what he was talking of, that rugged old master of common sense. Gissing, Ryecroft.

She had really been rather wonderful, that strange Sylvia. Sinister Street, p. 1021.

"They've gone away, the demons," was what she said. ib. p. 1024.

It was a wonderful invention, the Universal Thrift Club. Bennett, Card ch. 7, § 1.

And sweet he'll look, that nice little Billy. Cotes, Cinderella, ch. 13.

"She's a nice girl — Barbara," said Graham thoughtfully. Cotes, ib. ch. 11.

She's such a decided character, dear Jane. Galsworthy, Man of Property, ch. 1.

b. For it has a spirit, this brilliant palace, a spirit definite and single. Pilot, 9/4, 1904.

They had all done so well for themselves, these Forsytes, that they were all what is called 'of a certain position'. Galsworthy, Man of Property, ch. 1.

c. They are no ordinary houses, those. Dickens, Pickwick, ch. 21.

He was not going to be a snuffy schoolmaster, he. Eliot, Floss.

1964. A similar construction is used as an expedient to

express an emphatic negative. The sentence is frequently independent. See 2021 ff.

"Are you going to tell him?" "Not I."

Compare also the appended statements in 614 ff.

1965. The appended subject may also be a gerund, not an infinitive.

She said you were out. So it does not seem so very wonderful, meeting you here. Cotes, Cinderella, ch. 23.

It must have been very pleasant, staying at the Hall. Gaskell, Wives, II, p. 19.

It gets more and more uphill work, cheering these two women. Bennett, Old W. Tale, IV. ch. 4, § 2.

It was unfortunate, her choosing of that phrase. Temple Thurston, City, III, ch. 10.

1966. When a noun-subject is added without any break the construction is different in so far as the sentence is undoubtedly simple.

He was a curious creature this husband of hers. Mackenzie, Sylvia Scarlett, ch. 7, p. 201.

It was a great nuisance this war. Id., Sylvia and Michael, p. 61.

He said it was very funny the way in which the penguins used to waddle right through him. Wells, Country, p. 94.

You can talk, you can say a lot. But it's artificial the whole of it. Walpole, Duchess of Wrexe, ch. 1, § 4.

1967. With the gerund this construction without a break is more common than with a break (*It's no use asking John*); with the infinitive (*It's no use to ask John*) there never is a break.

It is usual to call the first subject *it* a provisional pronoun in this construction, and thus to separate it from the sentences with an appended subject. The provisional *it* is also used when a clause follows: *It is quite likely that he will refuse.* A conjunctive *that* is frequently used, but it is also often absent.

1968. The interpretation of these sentences as containing a 'provisional' *it* and a gerund, infinitive, or clause, as a 'logical' subject, hardly does justice to the construction. Even when there is a break the gerund can often be looked upon as an adjunct to the predicate rather than as an appended subject. This seems to be clear in the following example, which must be quoted in the context.

> The vinery was of their own designing, and of extraordinary interest. In contemplation of its lofty glass and aluminium-cased pipes the feeling of soreness left her. It was very pleasant, standing with Gerald, looking at what they had planned together. Galsworthy, Freelands, ch. 12, p. 145.

In this quotation *it* might be interpreted as an anaphoric pronoun, and the gerund as an adverb adjunct expressing attendant circumstances, but it must be granted that the gerund has no proper 'subject' in that case.

The interpretation of *it* as a provisional pronoun, followed by the infinitive or clause as a logical subject, too, is often artificial. For the infinitive is sometimes rather an adjunct of purpose than a subject in this construction (*a*), and the subordinate clause may be rather an object clause than a subject clause, especially if the verbal predicate of the head-clause in passive (*b*). Sometimes the construction of the subordinate clause is evidently dependent upon the headclause, on account of the auxiliary (*c*).

> *a.* It needs little ingenuity to show that truth and fiction are not entirely incompatible with one another.
>
> Times Lit., 12/8, '20.
>
> *b.* Well, it's our hope that they may be able to.
>
> Gissing, New Grub Street, ch. 8.
>
> It was ascertained beyond doubt that the new dress had not suffered. Bennett, Old Wives' Tale I, ch. 1, § 2.
>
> It may have been observed that there is no regular path for getting out of love as there is for getting in.
>
> Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. 5.

c. It is improbable that he *should* have deceived you like that.

If the infinitive (with its object clause) in the following quotation were interpreted as a logical subject, the 'logical' predicate would be *remains*, which does not seem very intelligible.

It only remains to say that everyone who was anyone, seemed to be at the Durbar. Punch (Poutsma I p. 101).

1969. Cases such as the one of 1968*a* above make it clear how the final adverbial infinitive came to be used as a subject (with a provisional *it*, or not). It is also well-known how slight a shifting of the verbal idea is sufficient for the final infinitive to turn into an object (336 f.). This explains why some verbs may have the gerund as well as the infinitive.

He did not intend to tell her that he was going to ride in a race. Garvice, Staunch as a Woman, p. 241.

The summer was well advanced and most people who intended going out of Town had already left. ib. p. 211.

The adverbial origin of the infinitive as a subject or object is also the reason why it always has *to*, and why it differs from the gerund in not being used when a break separates the non-finite verb from the predicate [1]).

1970. It is also worth noting that the subject of the gerund with provisional *it* can be expressed by the common case of a noun or by a personal as well as a possessive pronoun, whereas the gerund as a subject at the beginning of the sentence requires a genitive and a possessive (not a personal) pronoun.

---

1) It may be pointed out that in colloquial Dutch the infinitive with the provisional subject generally has the form of an adverb adjunct of purpose, taking *om te* instead of *te*: *Het is moeilik om dat te begrijpen* (It is difficult to understand that).

In conclusion it may be pointed out that in such a sentence as *It is necessary that he should go*, we cannot say that the use of *should* is to be explained by its subordination to *necessary*, unless we give up calling the clause a subject-clause. See 1005 ff.

1971. An appended noun- or pronoun-object is not so common as the construction with an appended subject.

> She's a real little fool. I have it from good authority, that.
> Emily Brontë, Wuthering Heights ch. 12.

The 'provisional' object *it* with a 'logical' infinitive, gerund, or clause is common enough. See Volume I.

1972. Both subjects and objects may be put at the head of the sentence, and be referred to by an anaphoric personal pronoun.

> To have impressed Mr. Enwright — by Jove, it was something!
> Bennett, Roll-Call I ch. 8 § 4.
>
> This masked figure that you saw, did you recognise it?
> Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

Form and Function of Sentences

1973. In analysing sentences it is usual, and proper, to consider *form* first, *function* in the second place. Sometimes form and function disagree so completely that both must be considered. We have already seen (1479) that the headword of what looks like an adjective clause sometimes forms part of the subordinate clause, so that it may be looked upon as part of a conjunctional group. In a similar way we may interpret the following sentence as containing an object clause introduced by *all that*, rather than an adjective clause depending upon *all* [1]).

1) Compare *alwie, alwat* in Dutch.

> It is difficult to realize all that publishers like Aldus Manutius, in Erasmus's earlier literary career, and John Froben, in his later life must have meant to him.
>
> Times Lit. 23/11, '22.

Besides these cases we can distinguish the following groups of sentences showing disagreement between form and function:

1. apparent simple sentences, which are double or compound in function.
2. apparent coordinate sentences of parts of sentences.
3. apparent compound sentences which are simple or double sentences in their function.
4. apparent subordinate clauses which have the function of independent sentences.

Apparent Simple Sentences

1974. Sentences with free adjuncts have been treated as simple sentences. But the absence of a finite verb is not really a final test in deciding whether we have a real sentence (1993 ff), and as far as function goes the free adjuncts may very well be considered to be parts of a double or compound sentence. When the relation between a free adjunct and the rest of the sentence is one of attendant circumstances the whole may be considered a double sentence; a very good instance is the following: *But Mr. W. did not come, the explanation doubtless being that he was mad* (Bennett, Card, ch. 8 § 3). In other cases it is rather a compound sentence; see 553 ff.

1975. We have a similar case in sentences with some adverbs. In the sentence *Unfortunately he could not speak a word of German* the adverb *unfortunately* does not qualify any part of the sentence, nor does it qualify the sentence as a whole, but it expresses an independent thought: *It was unfortunate.* These adverbs may be called *sentence-adverbs.*

It is impossible to say whether sentences with such adverbs

are double or compound sentences. When they are connected by *and* the effect may be that of a parenthetic sentence.

He has protested, and rightly, against the inability of biographers, notoriously Macaulay, "to conceive of conduct except as either right or wrong". Times Lit. 10,2, '21.

Apparent Coordination

1976. It is not always easy to decide whether we have a double sentence or a simple sentence with a double subject or predicate (1905). The following two sentences show how gradually one construction passes into the other.

He is a nice man, Tom Granger.
He is a nice man, is Tom Granger.

The second sentence may be formally considered to be a double sentence, although in function it is as much a simple sentence as the first. The same applies to the cases of repetition of the auxiliary as instanced by these two sentences:

John can do it, cannot he?
I've been kind to you, have I?

1977. Sentences connected by *and* are sometimes not coordinate in function. Very often the first is subordinate to the second sentence (*a*). The construction occurs frequently with an imperative in the first sentence (222 ff) or a subjunctive (231). Also with the auxiliary *let*. The imperative may be so frequent in this construction that it is equivalent to a preposition. This is the case only when there is no connecting *and* (*b*).

a. Let a girl talk with her own heart an hour, and she is almost a woman. Meredith Harrington, ch. 18.

Let England be imperilled, and Englishmen will fight; in such extremity there is no choice. Gissing, Reyecroft, XIX.

b. Bar one or two, they all want to make the omelette without breaking eggs. Galsworthy, Freelands, ch. 8.

We have occasionally an apparently coordinate construction in sentences connected by *either . . . . or.*

Either you go with us, or we won't go at all.

The subordinate character of the first sentence is not only shown by its rising intonation at the end (225), but sometimes by an adverb in the second, as by *yet* in his passage:

For call it lovers' quarrels, yet I know
Tho' men may bicker with the things they love,
They would not make them laughable in all eyes.
Tennyson, Geraint and Enid.

1978. The coordination (by *and*) of two imperatives, infinitives, participles, or finite verbs (usually in the preterite) may express a relation of purpose or result.

Mind and put in those wraps and waterproofs.
Garvice, Lorrie, p. 58.

Try and write the letter to-night.

He was writing a short story — a very tricksy thing to try and do. Temple Thurston, City, I, ch. 5.

You must mind and not lower the church in people's eyes.

In fact poor Boxer (a dog), as Mrs. Carnaby exclaimed, was bleeding like a pig; and the grateful animal acknowledged her kind notice by going and rubbing his shot side against her shot silk. Sweet, Element, no. 76.

Sylvia felt keenly interested. She could have stopped and watched the scene for hours without wanting to play herself.
Lowndes, Chink, ch. 5.

He grew resolute. On the day of the party at the Benbows he had been and carefully inspected the plot of land at Shawport, and yesterday he had made a very low offer for it.
Bennett, These Twain I ch. 9.

I wanted to get out and walk. Cotes, Cinderella, ch. 17.

There is practically only one kind of play that we care to go and see; and this is what we may describe as the comedy of drawing-room manners. Pilot.

Its chief use seems to be to serve as a prop for the village idlers — something to lean against and gossip all day long.
Sweet, Spoken English, p. 72.

She should learn and indulge his habits.

He never said he hoped you would come round and see it.
Sweet, Spoken English, p. 79.

1979. The first of two formally coordinated sentences may have the function of a concessive clause.

Progress might be slow, but it was sure.
Strachey, Eminent Victorians p. 132.

1980. When the second of two coordinated verbs is negative, the relation is frequently one of result. The construction is then equivalent to *without* with a gerund.

Mark Robarts' mistake had been mainly this, — he had thought to touch pitch and not be defiled.
Trollope, Framley, ch. 42.

1981. Sometimes it is impossible to decide whether we have coordination or subordination.

To seize her husband at home, therefore, might be no impossible task; though here, in the heart of the village, a troop of horse might make the attempt and fail.
Stanley Weyman, Red Robe.

The Government could never yield and survive.
Times W., 23/5, '13.

It imposed a problem which we either solve or perish.
Times Lit. 24/17, '19.

1982. The subordination of the first of two parts of a sentence connected by *and* is often shown by the stress.

ə lot əv smɑt fùtmən -keim ən stɛəd -æt əs.
Sweet, Spoken Engl., p. 64.

ən wĭj -went ən : stùd sʌm -wei ɔf. ib., p. 56.

1983. Formal coordination when there is subordination in function is especially found of sentences and of (predicative)

verbs. But in some expressions we also have coordination of two adjectives, the first of which is an adjunct to the second.

It's nice and sweet now.
It's nice and warm.

Compare also 1818 ff. on repetition.

Apparent Compound Sentences

1984. If we tried to analyse a sentence like *It is yesterday that I saw him* according to its form, we should call *It is yesterday* the head clause, the rest the subordinate clause. But is would be impossible to define the function of this subordinate clause, for in fact it contains the complete statement the sentence is intended to express, to which the 'head-clause' only adds an adjunct of time. We have, therefore, a simple sentence in spite of the form, which seems to be used to give front-position to the psychological predicate.

The sentences should not be identified with those discussed in 1967 ff. (provisional *it*), and also illustrated by the following quotation:

> It may have been that the porter at York railway station was irritated by Sunday duty, or it may have been that the outward signs of wealth in his client were not conspicuous; whatever the cause, he spoke rudely to her.
>
> Mackenzie, Rich Relatives I p. 7.

1985. The connecting word is generally *that* (*a*), sometimes *where* (*b*), but very often there is no connective (*c*). The construction is also used to give front-position to a subordinate clause (*d*); in this case *that* must be used.

> *a.* It was from a monastery that sounded forth the voice which, when all others had been hushed, still continued that tale of our national history in our old national speech.
>
> Gardiner and M., Introd., p. 51.
>
> She said that it was not every day that she could write.
>
> Gaskell, Life of C. Brontë, ch. 15, p. 243.

It is thus that young men occasionally design to burst from the circle of the passions.
Meredith, Harrington, ch. 18, p. 184.

It is when he looks to the future that we find him least satisfactory. Times Lit., 4/10, 18.

We can now see why it was that the political conflicts of the seventeenth century often raged round the position of the judges. Dicey, Law of the Const., Lect. VI.

b. Yet it was in Venner's office where Michael found the perfect fruit of time's infinitely fastidious preservation, the survival not so much of the fittest as of the most expressive.
Sinister Street, p. 636.

Where she, Kitty, loses by comparison is in simplicity of nature. Cotes, Cinderella, ch. 11, p. 126.

Where the French were really important was in their ideas and in the forms of their poetry. Ker, Engl. Lit., p. 16.

c. It is not often we have snow in the middle of May.
Sweet, Element, no. 62.

Dearest Lucy, what is it makes your head ache so often now?
Trollope, Framley, ch. 26.

It was a priest told me to come here.
Sinister Street, p. 257.

d. It was only when Oswald was within two days' journey of Luba Fort upon Lake Victoria Nyanza that his letters reached him. Wells, Joan and Peter, ch. 6, § 1, p. 126.

1986. When the word emphasized by *it is* is a noun, the clause resembles an adjective clause. Hence we often find a relative pronoun in this case. See 1132 ff.

In all their walks it had been Michael who flashed the questions, she who let slip her answers.
Sinister Street, p. 457.

"It's not usually the wife who decides where to live", said he. Meredith, Amazing Marriage, ch. 4, p. 41.

Of a similar kind are the sentences with an introductory *there is*; see 1934.

1987. The clauses with an introductory *it is* to emphasize a noun are equivalent in function to compound sentences containing a subject clause, thus showing once more that the form of a sentence does not decide its meaning.

> But the doctor's case was what struck me. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll, p. 7. (= It was the doctor's case that struck me).
>
> All through the time between the Norman Conquest and Chaucer one feels that the Court is what determines the character of poetry and prose. Ker. Eng. Lit., p. 102 (= It is the Court that (which) determines, etc.).

In these sentences the first (head) clause may be looked upon as the predicate clause, both grammatically and psychologically.

1988. Among the sentences that are compound in form but contain two coordinate sentences as far as function is concerned, the continuative adjective and adverb clauses of time have already been discussed (1926 ff., 1958). But other adverb clauses may also really be coordinate. See also 1959, 1991.

> The children would have been juster, as they were kinder. Times Lit., 12/4, '18.
>
> This difficulty is only increased if, as does Professor Moore, we date the composition of the Homeric poems as late as 800—750 B. C, History, IV. no. 14, p. 62.
>
> As every man was a judge, so every man was a soldier. Gardiner and M., Introd., p. 18.
>
> But let it not for an instant be doubted that they were nice kind-hearted, wellbehaved, and delightful girls! Because they were. They were not angels [1]). Bennett, Old W. Tale, I, ch. 1, § 2.
>
> If he strengthened the king's hands, his relation to the king gave him strength. Gardiner and M., Introd., p. 33.

1) The coordinate function of *because* is also shown by the fact that it can be used as an adverb.

> Why Peetickay? I am afraid the only answer is Because. Because it cannot be anything else. W. Perrett, Peetickay, p. 45.

The next day George Featherly went with me to the station, where I took a ticket for Dresden. Hope, Zenda, ch. 2.

"Well!" cried Constance. "Did you ever see such a thing?"

While Sophia, short of adequate words, flushed and bit her lip. Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. 1 § 2.

The rapid growth of an unlimited reading public in India, while it encourages indigenous talent, also provides an ample circle of readers and buyers of good works by European or American authors. History, IV, no. 14, p. 73.

It is in style the most perfect, as it was in respect of influence the most effective of Mill's writings.

Dicey, Law and Opinion, p. 423.

If in this matter Mr. Belloc's book is disappointing, it is equally unsatisfactory in regard to another and even more important matter. Times Lit. 30/3, 22.

I must have stared upon it for near half a minute, sunk as I was in the mere stupidity of wonder. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

1989. In the chapter on *Relative Pronouns* we have made a distinction between continuative and coordinate relative clauses (1133 ff., 1159, 1173). It is evident that the distinction is purely formal: the continuative clauses have an apparent noun (or pronoun) antecedent, the others have not. We have also referred to continuative adverb clauses (1958). When a continuative clause opens with a relative adverb, however, it is not really possible to say whether it is an adjective clause or an adverb clause, in the case that there is a noun to which the adverb may be supposed to refer. This is quite natural, for the distinction between continuative adjective and continuative adverb clauses is also formal only: in function they are neither adjective nor adverb clauses, for they are coordinate. Relative adverb clauses, like relative adjective clauses (1929), may express cause or reason, as in the following quotation;

Then she surged swishing along the corridor and went into the showroom, whither she had been called.

Bennett, Old W. Tale I, ch. 3, § 3.

1990. The interpunction, as well as the meaning, in the following passage shows that in the first sentence *because* is a coordinating, in the last a subordinating conjunction. Note also that in the first case we have semi-indirect style.

> The day sanctioned by custom in the Five Towns for the making of pastry is Saturday. But Mrs. Baines made her pastry on Friday, because Saturday afternoon was of course a busy time in the shop. It is true that Mrs. Baines made her pastry in the morning, and that Saturday morning in the shop was scarcely different from any other morning. Nevertheless, Mrs. Baines made her pastry on Friday morning instead of Saturday morning because Saturday afternoon was a busy time in the shop. Bennett, Old W. Tale, I, ch. 3, § 1.

1991. Sentences like *Hardly did he see me when he ran out of the room* or *No sooner did he see me than he ran out of the room* are, no doubt, compound sentences. But what is formally the subordinate clause (because introduced by a conjunction) is not a part of the rest of the sentence (the headclause). On the contrary, the opening clauses of both sentences, although not containing the conjunction, are in function adverb clauses of time. In these cases, too, we have a contrast between form and function.

Clauses with *as*, too, are sometimes rather to be explained as the head-clause as far as function goes, whereas the apparent head-clause is subordinate. See 1959, 1988.

> As Mr. Rhys truly says, it is unnecessary to go profoundly into the history and origin of the essay. Times Lit. 30/11, 22.

Apparent Subordinate Clauses

1992. Some sentences have the form of a subordinate clause because they are introduced by a conjunction, but there is no headclause. Such are the sentences expressing an idle wish (*Oh that we too might stand*, etc.: § 292), and such as are introduced by *if*. Also the exclamatory sentences with front-position of some part of the predicate and the sentences opening with *not but that, not but what*.

If he had only told me!

Our ancestors had suffered from isolation; they had a literature in their own tongue such as no other nation could boast, but on the religious side they had little else. Not but that they were below the general level in regard to faith or life, but that they had been in a back-water, unaffected by modern currents of progress.

Watson, Church of England, p. 36.

But I rather wished that she might choose not to sit in Tom's company, though she might be introduced to him. Not but what he could behave quite as well as I could, and much better as regarded elegance and assurance, only that his honesty had not been as one might desire.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone, ch. 46, p. 321, (ib. ch. 31, p. 207 and ch. 36, p. 239).

Sentences not distinguishing Subject and Predicate

1993. In the preceding sections the sentences have been treated as normally containing a subject and a predicate (1826). Although this is a very common form, especially in sentences stating an opinion or giving information, there are many sentences that do not distinguish subject and predicate. In some cases there is a finite verb but no subject, in others there is what may be called a subject, but no finite verb. Again a sentence may consist of words, or of one word, that cannot be considered as either a subject or predicate.

Sentences without a Subject

1994. The commonest type of sentences without a subject are the imperative sentences (*a*). Indeed, sentences are hardly imperative when there is a subject; in this case they may be said to express a statement of something that is looked upon as certain to occur (*b*). But when the sentence is negative we clearly have an imperative sentence (*c*).

a. Come home in time.
b. Just you carry these things down.
c. Don't you dare to go and tell tales.

See further the sections on *Wordorder* in these sentences.

An imperative with an object may become a preposition if it stands in one of two coordinate sentences. The original function remains perceptible, however, as long as there is a conjunction or a clear pause, or a rising pitch. See 1977.

Bar the most strenuous national heroism, there's nothing for it now but the garden city! Galsworthy, Freelands p. 97.

1995. Interrogative sentences often have no subject; the cause is that the unstressed first part, including the auxiliary, is omitted (*a*). That the auxiliary is really present to the mind of the speaker is shown by the sentences that 'repeat' the auxiliary and subject (*b*).

a. "Buying much this trip?" asked Stanway.
Bennett, Leonora ch. 4.

Great book *Intentions*. Ever read it, Clarke?
Waugh, Loom of Youth I ch. 6 p. 70.

Then he remembered that the flare might have scorched her face, and expressed his concern. 'A bit. Nothing to hurt. Smell the singed hair?' Conrad, Chance II, p. 92.

"Mean to tell me," asked Winnie, "that they don't know more down in the country than to charge a trifling sum like that?" Pett Ridge, Name of Garland ch. 5 p. 89.

b. Dick fancies the pink one [1]). Can't have it, because it ain't cricket [2]) for kids of three to take precedence of grown-up ladies rising five. Pipe his eye [3]), does he? Not so, my masters — the yellow one is just as agreeable to Master Richard. Snaith, Principal Girl p. 45 (and passim).

Come out of our way a bit, haven't we?
Vachell, Quinneys' p. 191.

1) a box of chocolates.
2) it is not proper.
3) weep.

1996. Exclamatory sentences show the same form.

"What a splendid idea!"

„Isn't it?" Vachell. Quinneys', p. 191.

Yes, please — two lumps. And, oh — muffins! How too luxurious! Cotes, Cinderella, ch. 13, p. 153.

1997. A similiar omission of the unstressed subject-pronoun and often of the auxiliary is found in declarative sentences (*a*); frequently in sentences with an appended subject, which are related to the exclamatory sentences (*b*). In spite of the absence of a comma we also have an appended subject and an appended sentence in the last quotation.

a. "I wonder where Evelyn is?"

"I don't fancy we shall see her. Doesn't ride, you know..."

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 19, p. 215.

By the way, as you're a bit of a novice at this game, better stick to me when we get off. ib. p. 215 f.

"How did you like your bathe? Was the water warm?"

"Never had a better bathe in my life."

Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 83.

"Take care," said Mrs. G., "he might hear you."

"Do him good," said the squire cheerfully.

Crawford, Lonely Parish, ch. 9.

b. Look well on the stage, that boy! said Crawford's voice.

Hichens, Ambition ch. 27.

An agreeable young man, that Peel-Swynnerton!

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV, ch. 1, § 4.

Each felt aggrieved that the other had not modified his habits to secure his society a little longer; but as Roger voiced it in his thoughts:

'Always a stubborn beggar, Nick!'

And as Nicholas expressed it to himself:

'Cantankerous chap Roger always was!'

Galsworthy, Man of Property I end of ch. 1.

1998. The formal subjects *it* and *there* are seldom absent, at least in spoken English. Occasionally they are absent but in that case the copula is absent, too.

May-Day afternoon in Oxford Street, and Felix Freeland, a little late, on his way from Hampstead to his brother John's house in Porchester Gardens.

Galsworthy, Freelands, first sentence of ch. 1.

London. Michaelmas term lately over, and the Lord Chancellor sitting in Lincoln's Inn Hall, etc.

Dickens, Bleak House, beginning of ch. 1.

Sentences without a Finite Verb

1999. Sentences without a finite verb are chiefly such as contain a subject and a nominal predicate, without a copula. For examples see also the preceding sections.

Let's get under that tree. Fine old oak this!

Sweet, Element., no. 66.

"You're a wonderful fellow," he said slowly; "the hare you, the tortoise I. It was always so."

Vachell, Brothers, vol. II, ch. 7, p. 92.

The construction is also frequent in proverbs.

Like master, like man.

So many men, so many minds.

Other sentences of this kind are the exclamatory sentences with the infinitive (with *to* or without *to*), which have been treated in the first volume.

2000. In the following sentence we may consider the part beginning with *their weapons* as an absolute adjunct. But it is at any rate closely connected with the construction here treated.

Secret political clubs flourished, their weapons slander and murder, their purpose the overthrow of the constitution.

Goodspeed, Hist. p. 179.

2001. When the verb to be supplied in thought is not a copula it is often so general in meaning that it is impossible to say what verb is required. Indeed, we must say, in these cases, that we have an independent type of sentence (*a*). This is evident in many proverbial sentences which could not be adapted to the pattern of a sentence with a subject and a predicative verb, no matter what verb were added (*b*).

a. Hundreds of thousands a year, and tramping it like a pedlar, with a beggar for a friend.

Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 8, p. 94.

What if I die under it? Wells, Country p. 161.

b. First come first served.
Least said soonest mended.
Nothing venture nothing have.
Waste not want not.
No song no supper.
One man one vote.

2002. The reference is clear to the preceding auxiliary (or copula) in emphatic denials consisting of *not* with a personal pronoun.

Besides, was Margaret one to give way before strange men, or even household friends like the cook and Charlotte? Not she! Gaskell, North and South, ch. 6, p. 59.

Sentence-Words

2003. Some words regularly form a sentence, such as *yes*, or *no*. But they do so only in connection with another sentence. Words used in a sentence with subject and predicate may also be used alone to form a complete sentence, but, again, in connection with another sentence only. Such are e. g. *Sure?* — or *You?* or *Never!* to denote surprise.

2004. Words that are frequently used as sentence-words may become interjections. Such are *say*, *my hat* in the following sentences.

He pushed at the trap-door [1]). "Say, driver, go up Park Lane and along Oxford Street a bit."

Bennett, Leonora, last chapter.

Tod in the plough works? My hat!

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 2, p. 18.

Say and *thank you* seem to be the only remaining verbs without a subject-pronoun in a declarative sentence. *Say* may often be taken for an imperative.

1) i. e. in the roof of the cab.

CONCORD

Concord of Person

2005. The rule is that subject and predicate agree in person.

I agree with you.

He cares for nothing else.

If Fate made men dwell in the mansions of their dreams how many of us would find ourselves queerly housed?

Vachell, Brothers I, ch. 2, p. 32.

The use of *ourselves* in the last sentence is the result of the attributive character of *many of*, so that *us* is the head-word of the subject; see 1454 on the preposition *of*.

2006. In relative clauses (*a*) and in real or apparent adjective clauses without a connecting word (*b*) the verb agrees in person with the noun or pronoun referred to.

a. Graham was a great deal more than that, though I say it who am his sister. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 12, p. 146.

Is it I, Henry Ryecroft, who after a night of untroubled rest, rise unhurriedly, dress with the deliberation of an oldish man... Gissing, Ryecroft XVIII.

It is you who deserve all the blame.

b. "Sophia," said Mrs. Baines with godlike calm, "it is not I who make you cry. It is your guilty conscience makes you cry." Bennett, Old Wives' Tale I, ch. 3, p. 68.

There's nothing vexes me so much as that way you have.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 4, p. 28.

2007. If the persons in a double subject are different the verb usually agrees in person with the nearest noun or pronoun (*a*) but a form that does not show distinctions of person is often preferred (*b*), or two coordinate sentences are used (*c*).

a. Neither he nor I know anything about it.
b. Neither he nor I can know anything about it.
c. He does not know anything about it, neither do I.

This rule of concord is almost invariably observed; exceptions, in colloquial English, may be explained as slips of the tongue.

I assure you, Uncle Archie, neither mother nor I is a fool.

Concord of Number

Subject and Predicative Verb

2008. We generally find concord of number between the subject and its predicative verb (or copula).

This man is an old servant of ours.
These men have done their work well.
In the autumn and winter the sheep find a home there.
Times W. 30/11, '17.
American farmers have already found out that trout pay — positively pay — better than poultry. Pilot.
Athens was constantly on the verge of financial exhaustion, although she had a fairly prosperous commercial activity.
Goodspeed, History p. 193.

2009. Words in *-s* with one form for the singular and the plural meaning, such as *barracks*, *means*, etc. (827), are construed with a singular or a plural predicative verb according to their meaning.

Price's works was small. Bennett, Anna, ch. 3.

2010. Plural titles of books are generally construed as singulars.

Percy's *Reliques of Ancient English Poetry* was first published in 1765.

In 875 Lindisfarne was burned and sacked by the Danes, and the monks fled, carrying with them the body of St. Cuthbert and the Lindisfarne Gospels, the latter of which is now in the British Museum. Clayton, Dioceses, p. 15.

2011. Nouns in *-ics* are generally construed as plurals (*a*). In many cases, especially if they denote a science rather than a practical matter, they are also construed as singulars (*b*).

a. Gymnastics have become one of the institutions of the country.

Our politics are unconvincing. They do not convince even members of the House of Commons, whose attendance at debates is remarkably meagre. Observer 31/10, '21.

Phonetics are a useful study.

Economics, as a subject of serious study, were passed over in silence by the Greeks. Oxf. and Camb. Rev. Oct. 1911.

b. Mathematics is the science of quantity; its students are mathematicians.

What mechanics has achieved in this gigantic ship, may be may be gathered from the following.

Phonetics is the science of speech-sounds.
Sweet, Primer of Phonetics § 1.

Politics is a very complex business. Wilde, Ideal Husband.

2012. Plural nouns of measure are often construed as singulars.

Thirty yards is a good distance.

Ten minutes is a short time.

Three times five is fifteen.

The 'nineties was a good and stimulating period for a short-story writer. Wells, Country p. IV.

2013. The pure collective nouns denoting persons that can be used in one number only, such as *public, clergy*, are frequently construed as plurals (*a*), although they are also found as singulars (*b*).

a. "The fact is," he added confidentially, "the public take their chairs at the beginning of the evening, and stick to them."

The landed gentry are the untitled aristocracy of England.

At any rate modern clergy are not so deficient in education as they were in the early years of Queen Elizabeth.

About 100 extra police were drafted into the city.

Times W. 9/11, '17.

b. I say that the Anglican clergy, as a body, has failed, as it failed in the Lollard upheaval.

Some of these collective nouns denoting persons are always treated as plurals: *people, kinsfolk, horse* 'cavalry', *foot* 'infantry'.

2014. Individual collective nouns (722) denoting persons are construed as singulars or as plurals. The use of the number form naturally depends on the meaning connected with the noun; but some nouns are generally construed as plurals, even when the idea is looked upon as a whole rather than as consisting of individual members.

After all, the Fiscal question is not the only matter in which the Party (i.e. the members of the party) are interested.

We have to assume that the instructed class believe the catholic dogmas to be untrue, and yet wishes the uninstructed to be handed over to a system that reposes on the theory that these dogmas are superlatively true. (In this quotation the writer uses *the instructed class believe* because every one believes for himself; but *wishes* in the singular, because the instructed class express this wish as a party, not as individuals).

Morley, Compromise.

The Cabinet are declared to be unanimous.

Times 10/6, '16.

The Cabinet are responsible to Parliament as a body, for the general conduct of affairs. Dicey, Constitution Lect. VII.

It is not till after the 17th century that the jury practically lose their character as witnesses.

Holdsworth, Hist. of Engl. Law I, 157.

The English nation are descendants of Celtic, Saxon, Danish, and Norman settlers or colonists.

The party were puzzled by the size of the lions, and by their great manes, particularly the mane of the biggest.

Times Lit. 30/3, '16.

The United States Government has made a loan of £ 5,000,000 to Italy.....

The United States Government emphatically deny the truth of these reports. Times W. 21/12, '17.

2015. Other collective nouns than those denoting persons usually show concord of number.

The information received is very favourable.

His hair is sandy-coloured.

The fruit is not half-ripe.

The graves in which the pottery is found are in most cases entirely free of any trace of metal.

His savings have been put into the bank.

2016. Some nouns with a plural form are construed with a singular verb. The collective idea is very little prominent in these cases if they can be said to be collective nouns at all.

The news is too good to be true.

The United States is at war with Germany.

Times W. 13/4, '17, p. 297/1.

The United States are now at war with Germany.

ib. p. 301/1.

At no other period has such pains been taken.

An assumption for which there are little grounds.

Observer 10/4, '21.

2017. The number of nouns from Latin and Greek is sometimes misunderstood by popular writers. Hence we find *apologia* as a plural.

> Well, you begin to understand my breakdown now. I have been copious enough with these apologia.
>
> H. G. Wells in The English Review, Jan. 1909, p. 283.

On the other hand *data* is mistakenly construed as a singular in the following quotation:

> Maggie discovered much data about the university town.
>
> Pett Ridge, Lost Property, Ch. XIV.

I do not know whether the same cause should account for *regalia* as a singular in the following quotations; it *might* be considered as a collective.

> The regalia which was used at the Coronation of English Kings and Queens until the reign of Charles I. appears to have been regarded in pre-Reformation times as relics of St. Edward the Confessor. Times 19/6, '11. Coronation ed.
>
> .... the Emperor of Japan to whom the full regalia was sent when he was made Knight of the Garter by King Edward.
>
> Daily Mail.

2018. When a noun is followed by an adjunct with *of* the predicative verb sometimes agrees in number with the noun in the adjunct. The cause is evidently that what is formally the adjunct is in thought the headword. See 1454 on the preposition *of;* also 820 ff. on the group-plurals.

> There was heaps of time. Waugh, Loom of Youth, III ch. 8.
>
> I failed to pass in the small amount of classics which are still held to be necessary.
>
> We are of opinion that quite the right class of men have been chosen to fill the positions of magistrates.
>
> The reproduction of the Caedmon M. S. in the Bodleian is to be undertaken as soon as a sufficient number of subscribers have been secured.

Out of the mass of families and tribes emerged bit by bit larger political associations of a rude sort, to which are usually given the name of kingdoms.

Wakeman, Introduction p. 8.

The reader will notice that most of the letters from which I now quote are devoted to critical and literary subjects.

Gaskell, Life of C. Brontë, ch. 22, p. 354.

The first ten years of the present century has witnessed fifty treaties to one war. Everyman 3/1, '13.

Nine-tenths of every man's happiness depends upon his reception among his fellows in society.

2019. When the word that is formally the headword is also the chief element in the meaning of the group the predicate must, of course, agree with it.

The number of fools is infinite.

2020. When (*n*)*either* with an adjunct containing a plural word is the subject, the predicative verb may be singular (agreeing with *either*) or plural (agreeing with the word in the adjunct).

Neither of them is very young now, or foolish.

Times Lit. 20/1, '16.

I don't mean that either of the writers I name are absolutely thus narrow in their views. Ruskin, Val d'Arno.

An accident has happened. Both the young gentlemen have fallen into the pond, but neither are drowned.

Montgomery, Misunderstood ch. 13.

2021. In sentences with a nominal predicate it is sometimes difficult to say which part is the subject and which the nominal predicate (see 1821 on *Sentence-Structure*). It is especially so in sentences with an interrogative or relative pronoun, for these pronouns do not distinguish number.

The only difficulty in Finnish are the changes undergone by the stem.

Diplomacy and versatility is what is wanted [1]).
Sweet, Spoken English p. 94.

He is always ready to question what are regarded as established views on the New Testament.
Times Lit. 16/3, '16.

What the Russian people really want are better roads, more railways, better housing, better sanitation, better schools.
Everyman 3/1, '13.

All that is wanted to develop the resources of the Argentine are capital and labour. ib. 14/2, '13.

Marmaduke goes off to his work, and I to the kitchen to find out what are Annie's special prejudices in the way of work. Swaen I p. 37.

2022. When the construction with *it is (was)* is used to emphasize some part of the sentence the verb is in the singular, no matter what follows.

In that great style of his I loved even the faults — indeed, now that I come to think of it, it was the faults that I loved best. Conan Doyle, Magic Door.

It was the great English historians who taught us this.
Times Lit. 11/5, '17.

2023. We also find agreement between the predicative verb and the identifying *it* and *that*.

Mrs. Milvain mentioned her son's encounter an hour or two ago.

"No doubt it was they," said the visitor.
Gissing, New Grubstreet ch. 2.

"Ah, there they are!" said a voice. Sibylle turned gladly round; Marcelle made no movement.

"It is my father and M. Solignac," cried Sibylle.
Peard, Madame p. 130.

"I hope the owls did not disturb you."

"O, was that owls! I heard a most unearthly screeching . . ."
Sweet, Spoken English p. 68.

---

1) See 2026.

2024. When the pronoun, however, is really the subject of a sentence serving to describe persons, etc. (944 ff.), the plural *they* is used.

> Lily knew people who "lived like pigs", and their appearance and surroundings justified her mother's repugnance to that form of existence. They were mostly cousins, who inhabited dingy houses .... Wharton, House of Mirth ch. 3.

2025. The introductory *there* is practically a provisional subject. Hence we sometimes find a singular verb, although the real subject is plural. This construction is limited to colloquial (but educated) English. Compare 2063.

> "Ah," Stanway mused, "there's no first-class masters in this district." Bennett, Leonora ch. 7.
>
> There's few people can make a plain frock look decent. id. Anna of the Five Towns ch. 10.
>
> There's worse things than domestic service when you come to think it over calmly. Pett Ridge, Name of Garland p. 169 (ib. p. 125).
>
> "There's the letters, General," I said. de Morgan, Vance ch. 51, p. 508.
>
> Good-bye, Mr. Derek. 'Tis quiet enough here now; there's changes [1]). Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 38.

2026. Double (multiple) subjects, connected by *and* or without connecting words, usually have a plural predicate (*a*). If the members of a double subject are connected by *or*, *nor*, etc. in their *disjunctive* meaning, they do not form a real unity so that the predicate follows in the singular (*b*).

> *a.* The squire and his family usually sit nowadays on benches similar to those used by the rest of the congregation. Ditchfield, Parish Clerk p. 10.

---

1) The speaker is a country girl, and the sentence may be intended by the author as dialectal.

All learning and culture begin with poetry.

No, the charm — the undeniable charm; the strength — the unquestioned strength: the utility — of the House of Commons do not depend upon the nobility of the character of either its leaders or its rank and file.

There are cribbing and dishonesty at schools, which grow in inverse ratio to the competence of the staff.

Spectator 10/11, '17.

George had told her that there were gold and silver and copper in the foothills. Vachell, Spragge p. 73.

b. Either my brother or John has done it.

Neither the difficulty nor the vastness of his task deters the author. Times Lit. 2/2, 22.

2027. The use of the singular or plural verb depends upon the idea expressed by the double subject. Hence we may naturally expect the singular when the members of a double subject are connected by *and* meaning *as well as*. And we may expect a plural verb after a double (or oftener a multiple) subject when the connecting *or* is used in a meaning practically equivalent to *and*.

Perhaps if the strivings of science should succeed in proving as evident and comprehensible the existences which spiritualist and psychical research is striving to establish, we should know the thrill that the great twin discoverers, Copernicus and Columbus, brought to Europe. Mair, Eng. Lit.

Novalis or Rückert, for instance, have their eye fixed on nature. M. Arnold, Celtic Lit.

So from many sides came a willingness, if not a demand, for change which Henry was willing to gratify so long as neither the Catholic faith nor the authority of the Crown were impaired. Wakeman p. 252.

Compare these two quotations from the same article (A. Harrison in Eng. Rev. Jan. 1915):

There can be no renown for a people or a soldier who know no right.

When there is no moral force behind the ravages of physical exhaustion and the depression arising from an enforced defensive, a man, or an army, rapidly deteriorates.

Subject and Nominal Predicate

2028. There is not necessarily concord of number between subject and nominal predicate (*a*). But there is generally concord when the predicative noun expresses a profession, trade, etc. (*b*). On the adjectival character of predicative nouns, see 1756 ff.

a. It would almost seem as if he were two different men, following opposite courses and each so violently as to lead to his own misery. Times Lit. 5/2, '20.

But life then was not all lectures! — nor was it all Oxford. Mrs. Humphry Ward, Harper's Mag. May 1918.

b. Both his sons have become soldiers.

Subject and other parts of the Sentence

2029. There is not always concord of number between the subject and adverb adjuncts (including objects), and other parts of the sentence (*a*). But there often is concord when the noun is qualified by a possessive pronoun, even when the noun is more or less clearly abstract in meaning or otherwise seldom found in a plural form (*b*).

a. These men have done their work very well.

So we held our peace. Conrad, Chance I, 258.

His successor has kept up the good custom that those to whom the college looks for spiritual guidance should from time to time speak forth their mind concerning the highest matters.

Until we were out of our depth. Hole, Memories p. 143.

b. 'Have you had your breakfasts?' The small creature and her smaller brother shook their heads.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 11, p. 131.

They knew their own minds; they were both enthusiasts; they both had strong wills. Hichens, Ambition ch. 27, p. 330.

"You put that notion into their heads," the girl said.

Conrad, Chance I 248.

They sold their lives dearly.

They put their watches into their waistcoat-pockets.

We do not know very much about her, for the poet was one of those rare men of genius who are prepared to do justice to their fathers.

We have washed all the children's hairs.

It was not that their ideas were confused but their wills.
Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 12 § 1, p. 475.

And she thought of how their holland suits wore out .... and of how she used to cut their hairs, spending at least three quarters of an hour on each ....
Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 31.

Moreover, his heroes, whatever their pasts, set themselves to the winning of their misstresses in passably honourable fashion. Times Lit. 4/10, 23.

2030. The following instances of concord between the headwords and their prepositional adjuncts may be specially mentioned.

The mentions made of Lammas lands and half-year lands show the many kinds of divided ownerships which existed.
Gonner, Common Land and Inclosure p. 28.

In studying the lives of poets it is sometimes better to seek their portraits in the poems they write rather than in the men themselves and their circumstances.
Teacher's World 28/1, '14.

Nouns and Attributive Adjuncts

2031. As a rule the concord between nouns and their attributive adjuncts is the same as that between the noun and its predicative verb. Examples have necessarily been given in the preceding sections. The following may be added.

She had spared the time from her idleness to cultivate a language or two, a little music, a few politics [1]).
B. Harraden, Fowler.

---

1) Also *We talked a little politics.* But in this case *politics* might be looked upon as the adjunct to *a little*, for *politics* is generally treated as a plural in spoken English (2011).

And at breakfast the elder brother had thought that Steven's mind was dwelling on the spinning-shed, or on some of those "rotten politics." Patterson, Compton p. 78.

The only choice we can have is between a conscious metaphysics and an unconscious one.

Jones, Browning ch. 2 p. 36.

Mrs. John Wood has not been equalled this fifty years for broad, ripe comedy.

That five minutes of overhearing furnished Eustacia with visions enough to fill the whole black afternoon.

Hardy, Return of the Native II ch. 1.

His purpose in regard to that fifty thousand pounds.

Bennett, Anna ch. 13, p. 246.

He came to stay with me; hadn't been in Oxford this seventeen years — and this is the end of it.

Gaskell, North and South, ch. 41, p. 372.

Countess, he is a good six days overdue.

Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 9, p. 99.

Much infantry; many infantry.

Among the spectators were many police and detectives.

Lay Views by Six Clergy. The title of this book is curiously ambiguous. Is not "clergy" a collective noun, to be used for a body of clerks in holy orders belonging to a district or diocese? And if this is so "six clergy" might mean the whole body of clerks belonging to six dioceses, or it may be provinces.

Times Lit. 28/5, '14.

The Declaration for freedom in Biblical criticism which, in 1905, was signed by 1,725 Anglican clergy.

Athenaeum 30/5, '14.

A few wild cattle are preserved in Chillingham Park.

China is going to become an Asiatic United States.

Everyman 2/5, '13.

2032. Individual collective nouns denoting persons (*nation, family*, etc.) always have singular attributive adjuncts. *Pains* may have either *a little* or *a few*, but always *much*.

This family consisted of father, mother and three children.

Many of the remedies suggested would appear to be feasible enough, if only a little pains were taken to secure better arrangements. Everyman 27/6, '13.

But in the verses ... the author seems to us to have taken too few pains to be really entertaining to his chosen audience. Academy 11/10, 1902.

Noun and Referring Pronoun

2033. The concord between a noun and the referring pronoun is the same as between nouns and their attributive adjuncts.

Matters that have least to do with politics, or even nothing at all to do with them. Morley, Compromise.

Language cannot be explained by Metaphysics; for it is prior to them, and much more nearly allied to sense. Jowett, Plato, Introd. p. 17.

The whole country will associate themselves with him in his thanks and congratulations to the troops engaged. Times 30/11, '17.

In 1369 the heiress of the country was given to a French prince of the blood; the French party in Flanders reared their heads. Davis, Med. Europe p. 236.

The Admiralty felt bound to retrieve our defeat, and they deserve the utmost credit for the rapid and thorough fashion in which they have done it. Times W. 11/12, '14.

Come what may, the United States is now our Ally until the end of the war, and afterwards she will be an effective partner in the work of restoring the world to a permanent basis of peace and decency. ib. 6/4, '17.

As no man of seven could reach the upper shelves, a pair of steps was provided for Darius, and up these he had to scamper. Bennett, Clayhanger I ch. 4 § 2.

Indefinite Pronouns

2034. The indefinite pronouns (*each, every one, any one, everybody, anybody*) have a singular predicate, but the referring pronoun is often plural, evidently because the singular necessitates a choice between different genders. For *none* see 1425, 1430 f.

"I wouldn't have anyone allowed to marry until they were five-and-twenty," said Lady Beach-Mandarin.

Wells, Harman ch. 3 § 1.

It was a good thing that everybody kept their heads.

Times W. 9/8, '18.

It seems to me that everyone has arrived who ought to come, and judging by the noise they are making, everyone is thoroughly enjoying themselves.

Oppenheim, People's Man ch. 2 p. 15.

Let each esteem others better than themselves.

I don't know what has become of my umbrella. Some one must have taken it by mistake for their own.

Sweet, Elementarbuch, no. 40.

Somebody ought to write a book about it, indeed they ought.

Trollope, Last Chronicle II, 325.

No one need know..., need they?

Sidgwick, The Severins p. 104.

'Oh no. It's (i.e. the steamer) as firm as a house. No one could be ill with this?'

'Couldn't they?' he exclaimed. 'Beatrice could be.'

Bennett, Anna of the Five Towns, p. 161.

2035. The agreement of *a person* with a plural pronoun is due to its function; see 974.

A person cannot help their birth.

One need not always see a person to be interested in them.

Peard, Madame p. 35.

2036. The use of the plural referring pronoun is no doubt often due to the want of a genderless singular personal or possessive pronoun of the third person. The alternative *he or she, his or her* is sometimes found, although it is an awkward way out of the difficulty (*a*). Sometimes the masculine form is used as a genderless personal form (*b*).

a. (These circumstances) had naturally cast each member of the little circle upon his or her own resources.

Bulwer, Eugene Aram ch. 1.

.... the last stage, in which the accomplished professional dancer simply comes forward to exhibit his or her gracefulness.
Prof. G. Murray in English Lit. and the Classics p. 18.

b. I wondered if everyone perceived things in this way under chloroform; and forgot it again when he came out of it. Wells, Country p. 167.

No one is the worse off for hearing every point of view, is he? Oppenheim, People's Man ch. 6, p. 65.

Concord of Tense

2037. The concord between the tenses of principal and subordinate clauses has been fully dealt with in the first volume (149 ff.).

ORDER OF WORDS

2038. As English words have hardly any inflections, and as the inflected forms that are available are not always restricted to definite functions [1]), the order of words is a very important means of showing their relation in a sentence. In discussing the order of words it is advisable to treat first of simple sentences and headclauses of compound sentences, before we take the subordinate clause.

Subject and Verbal Predicate

2039. The most important question as to wordorder is the relative position of the subject and the verbal part of the predicate (including the copulas). The position of the rest of the sentence often depends upon this.

When the subject precedes the verbal predicate, we speak of *normal order*. When the subject follows the whole or part of the verbal predicate, we speak of *inverted order*. As the order of subject and verbal predicate is intimately connected with the meaning of the sentence, we distinguish sentences as:

1. declarative.
2. interrogative.
3. exclamatory.
4. imperative.
5. optative.

1) The genitive of nouns, for instance, is in the first place used as an attributive adjunct, but it may also be a predicative adjunct or a nominal predicate. And the absolute genitive may be any part of the sentence.

Normal Order

Declarative Sentences **2040.** The normal order of subject and verbal predicate in declarative simple sentences and head-clauses is subject-verb, or subject-copula-nominal predicate.

My father sent him the money.
The plan is impracticable.

Interrogative Sentences **2041.** Interrogative sentences may open with a subject-pronoun, or a subject-noun with a pronominal adjunct.

Who told you that?
How many war-loans have been issued since the beginning of the war?

2042. Questions may have the normal wordorder of a declarative sentence, but the rising intonation peculiar to disjunctive interrogative sentences. This form is used when an affirmative answer is taken for granted. It is closely related in meaning to the negative interrogative sentences. Compare also the confirmative questions (*Your are late, aren't you?*), and the sympathetic questions (*You are late, are you?*), in 610 ff.

Good-night, Dr. Huët; you will come in the morning?
Buchanan, That Winter Night ch. 11.

"You think so, ma'am?"
"I am sure of it." Baring-Could in Swaen I, p. 7.

Bertha, you don't think she'll hang about the house, and lie in wait for me, to be revenged?
Van Doorn, Dramatic Conversations I, p. 60.

"Randolph wouldn't go either; he says he doesn't think much of old castles..." — "Your brother is not interested in ancient monuments?" Winterbourne inquired, smiling.
James, Daisy Miller ch. 1, p. 25.

"Is this Black Strands?" she shouted.

The little woman advanced slowly with her eyes fixed malevolently on the pink paper. She seemed to be stalking it.

"This *is* Black Strands?" repeated the tall lady.

Wells, Harman.

Exclamatory Sentences

2043. Exclamatory sentences are really a special kind of interrogative sentences as far as their origin is concerned: they are interrogative but do not require an answer. In form, too, the exclamatory resemble the interrogative sentences, for they may open with a pronominal part or not.

2044. The pronominal exclamatory sentences, apart from the opening pronominal words, generally have the normal word-order (*a*). The exclamatory sentence may contain *not* without being negative in meaning (*b*).

a. Lord, what a night that was. Wells, Country, p. 80.

Oh, what a day this would be for the old chapel.

Sweet, Spoken English p. 47.

Yet what great things the Russians have done in art already! Times Lit. 5/8, '15.

How naturally poor Juliana Bonner was moved to mistake Evan's compassion for a stronger sentiment!

Meredith, Harrington ch. 16, p. 166.

b. On that terrace by the House, the sisters walked during their hour of contemplation. How many feet, I thought, had daily trod that gravel path, beating out a measure to what thoughts? God knows. How many feet, I wondered, had not trodden that path day by day, year by year, getting feeble and more feeble until at last they had ceased.

Temple Thurston, Thirteen III.

Optative Sentences

2045. Optative sentences with a present subjunctive have the normal order when there is an object. Present English has only a few instances of this construction as a survival of earlier practice.

God save the King.

It is convenient to treat imperative sentences separately, because they often have no subject. See 2058 ff.

Inverted Order

Declarative Sentences

2046. We find the order *auxiliary-subject-rest* of the verbal predicate when the sentence opens with a negative sentence-modifier (*a*). The same applies to sentences beginning with a negative word-modifier if the negation affects the whole sentence (*b*). The reason for this wordorder is that a negative word, emphatically put at the beginning of the sentence, naturally attracts the finite verb.

a. She did not like to question him too closely; nor was he a man to be so questioned as to the domestic affairs of his patients. Gaskell, Wives II p. 21.

Never had the doctrine of persecution been urged with such a blind and reckless ferocity. Green, Short Hist. p. 469.

No sooner had she entered the hall than she announced the proximate arrival of the Duke of Belfield at her heels. Meredith, Harrington ch. 16, p. 165.

Hardly had he returned from his Indian campaign when he plunged into the task of organizing his Empire on the lines which he had planned [1]). Goodspeed p. 217.

Very rarely in war has a single error had more far-reaching consequences. Times W. 28/1, '18.

b. Nowhere did Venice leave a deeper imprint of her civilization than upon the west coast of Istria di San Marco. Times Lit. 4/1, '18.

At no point south of the river have the enemy advanced more than a mile or two. Times W. 19/7, '18.

Only after a century and a half of confusion was the royal authority restored. Times Lit. 26/10, '17.

---

1) On the character of *hardly*, compare 1355.

Once only does the author give us first-hand information about any public character he has met. Times Lit. 22/6, '16.

In no religion do birth and death play the part which they play in Christianity. Times Lit. 23/12, '15.

On sentences of the type *He says he cannot do it. — No more he can*, see 618.

2047. It is not usual for the whole verbal group to precede the subject.

Never was spoken so sweet a name as Maud.
Sinister Street p. 87.

2048. The inversion of the predicative verb and the subject is also found when *not* does not really make the sentence negative.

Not till three o'clock that Saturday did the Bigwigs begin to come. Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 8.

But not only was Thackeray a master of his craft in the delineation of individual characters, but also he had the power of describing society, the commingling of these individuals, naturally. Westm. Rev. July 1911.

2049. When a negative adjunct is clearly understood as a word-modifier there is no inversion.

Only one short struggle broke a peace of fifteen years.
Green, Short Hist. p. 48.

Scarcely a sound came through the open window.
Bennett, Clayhanger I ch. 11 § 1.

"Only yesterday they were little girls, ever so tiny, and now —." Bennett, Old Wives' Tale I, ch. 7, § 3.

2050. Inversion is also regularly found in sentences opening with *so* which repeat the auxiliary of the preceding sentence in order to apply its predicate to a new subject. See 308.

Interrogative Sentences

2051. Apart from the sentences in 2041 f., all interrogative sentences differ from declarative ones by having a finite verbal form (an auxiliary or a copula) before the subject. The pronominal questions open with any part of the sentence containing the interrogative word (*a*). The other questions usually open with the finite verb (*b*).

a. What was Italy's position in the Trentino at the end of last summer's campaign?
What colour are his eyes?
What did you tell him?
What did she call the man?
Whose hat is that?
What are you thinking of?
How many people have you counted on?
In what year did he die?
How was the remnant of the Servian army saved?
When was cotton declared contraband?
b. Did you ask him to tell me?
Don't you think so too?
Are you coming with us?

For the place of prepositions in pronominal questions, see 2189.

2052. Disjunctive questions [1]) *can* open with another word than the auxiliary (or copula), but this is rare.

Cold, did they call her? Let others think her cold.
Meredith, Harrington ch. 24, p. 250.

2053. The word-order in repeated questions (1923) is the same as in direct ones,

"What do I think of Lucy Roberts?" she said, repeating her son's words in a tone of evident dismay.
Trollope, Framley ch. 34, p. 326.

---

1) This term is not only used for alternative questions (with *or*) but for all interrogative sentences requiring the answer *yes* or *no*.

Exclamatory Sentences

2054. Sometimes pronominal exclamatory sentences have the interrogative (i.e. inverted) word-order (*a*); also in negative exclamatory sentences (*b*).

a. How red and foolish looked poor, greedy Sydney.

Bo-Peep. Cassel. 1913.

To him she would always be splendid and magnificent, and with what determination would he expel from him any base attacks on that loyalty.

Walpole, Duchess of Wreye, I ch. 3, § 2.

In what strangely differerent accents does the historian Guglielmo Ferrero speak of the proletariate and the revolutionary agitators of Paris in 1848. Times Lit. 9/10, 1919.

How impossible would it have been for any family..... to feel otherwise than uneasy!

Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 1, p. 9.

How has our indignation been fired by the thought of the ruined villages of France. Patton, Village, p. 2.

b. What lives and hearts and fortunes had it not already devoured, that old exquisite stone house.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 18, p. 198.

How many times had she not sat there, in white frocks, her hair hanging down as now.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 15.

2055. Non-pronominal exclamatory sentences have the same order as the corresponding interrogative sentences, from which they differ only by their intonation. They are generally negative (*a*), but not exclusively (*b*).

a. Don't say anything at present about it — at present. Won't she live to find out the difference, and to know what she has done! I can tell her of one that won't pity her.

Trollope, Prime Minister ch. 16.

"Oh, wouldn't it be fun!" said Humphrey.

Montgomery, Misunderstood, ch. 11.

b. "Know it!" said Scrooge. "Was I apprenticed here!"

Dickens, Christmas Carol, st. 2.

Optative Sentences

2056. Inverted order of a verb of full meaning and its subject causes the verbal form to be looked upon as a subjunctive; see 229. The construction is restricted to the literary language.

Lie you easy, dream you light,
And sleep you fast for aye;
And luckier may you find the night
Than ever you found the day.
Housman, A Shropshire Lad, LIX.

Turn we now to the historian and biographer.
Birrell, Obiter Dicta (Essay on Carlyle).

2057. Optative sentences generally have an auxiliary before the subject. An adverb adjunct may open the sentence. On the use of the preterite of auxiliaries, see 607.

May you be successful.
Long may he live.
Here [1]), in the calm interplay of hypothesis and fact, he found his satisfaction. Could political theories be tested with equal dispassionateness. Times Lit. 17/11, '21.

Imperative Sentences

2058. Imperative sentences generally do not express the subject, except in the form of address, which does not form part of the sentence.

Tell me the truth.
Do tell me what you have seen.
Just post this letter for me, John.
Never mind what he says.

2059. When the subject is expressed it generally precedes the verb, so that the sentence is usually identical with a declarative one, apart from the stress (on the subject) and the intonation.

---

1) i. e. in the laboratory.

You take it from me that he doesn't.
Vachell, Quinneys' p. 93.

"Now you make a speech," Clotilda said to Michael, "well, not a speech, perhaps — but propose some one's health."
Sidgwick, Severins p. 33.

2060. A negative adverb does not cause inversion.

Never you mind what I mean to do with it.
Times W. 6/6, '13.

2061. Imperative sentences with the subject occasionally show inversion, when the verb is intransitive. This order may help to soften down the command.

Come you here, my girl.
Vachell, Quinneys' p. 216 (ib. p. 280, 284, 287).

Stay you quietly at B., till you go to S.—
C. Brontë in Gaskell, Life ch. 24, p. 398.

2062. Imperative sentences with *to do,* whether with a negative adverb or not, have the auxiliary before the subject.

"Don't you ask questions," said Mord Em'ly's mother sharply. Pett Ridge.

Don't you believe any rot about literature and art!
Niven, Porcelain Lady, ch. 4.

Oh, do you name the day. We never have many engagements, you know. Trollope, Framley ch. 10, p. 101.

Sentences with the introductory There

2063. When a verbal predicate without any adjuncts that enlarge its meaning is little more than a copula without adjuncts, it precedes the subject. In this case the sentence is introduced by the unstressed particle *there.* The particle cannot be considered a (formal) subject because the predicate verb generally agrees in number with the subject that follows. But there may be concord between *there* and the finite verb

(2025). If we look upon *there* as a provisional subject, we have normal order.

There have been many strange rumours about him.

Pretty women were everywhere, and there were many young and very smart men [1]). Hichens, Ambition ch. 7, p. 72.

There is no predicting what he will do.

2064. When the verbal predicate contains an auxiliary and a verb of full meaning, we often find the order *auxiliary-subject-verb*, also with the introductory particle *there*. When the verb is passive, the auxiliary *to be* may sometimes also be interpreted as a copula with an adjectival participle, as in the first and third instances.

There are many urgent reforms needed.

Everyman 18/11, '12.

But from the total of this rental there has, before it reaches the ducal coffers, been previously deducted the expenditure upon repairs and permanent improvements.

Escott, England I, 63.

Frankly, there are sermons being delivered every Sunday from Anglican and Nonconformist pulpits which in point of matter and style would not pass muster in a young men's debating society. Everyman, 29/11, '12.

2065. The effect of this order in passive sentences seems to be that the subject and predicate are evenly balanced in weight or importance, whereas the normal order is apt to give preponderating importance to the predicate. This is easily seen when in the above quotations the subject is put at the beginning of the sentences.

The reason why the whole verbal predicate precedes the subject in the active sentences with *there* is evidently that the subject in those sentences is the only part that has sufficient weight to have end-position.

---

1) The first part of this sentence strikes the reader as unusual. The normal construction would be: *There were pretty women everywhere.*

Normal Order and Inversion Compared

2066. It has been shown in the preceding sections that the order of subject and verbal predicate is intimately connected with the meaning of the sentence. Declarative sentences generally have normal order. The deviation in the case of sentences opening with a negative adjunct is due to the close connection between the negative adjunct and the finite verb. Interrogative sentences generally have the inverted order. Exclamatory sentences may have the order of declarative or of interrogative sentences; the same applies to imperative sentences that have a subject, and, within narrow limits, to optative sentences.

2067. The wordorder of declarative sentences, however, is not so fixed as the rules given above would lead one to suppose. Deviations are chiefly restricted to literary English. It is convenient to treat sentences with an object and those without separately.

Sentences without an Object

2068. When there is no introductory word front-position of the verbal predicate occurs in poetry only. The corresponding prose-construction is the one with the particle *there*.

> Times followed one another. Came a morn
> I stood upon the brink of twenty years.
> E. B. Browning, Aurora Leigh, Bk. II.

2069. When a declarative sentence opens with another part of the sentence than the subject, the order of words is *verb (or verbal group) and subject* when the subject has the stronger stress or the greater weight, and *subject and verb (or verbal group)* when the verb is the more important of the two.

2070. Front-position of an adverb adjunct often causes inversion, the verb or passive verbal group preceding the subject.

Through a spur of this hill ran the highway from Norcombe to Casterbridge. Thomas Hardy.

The king's will governed the law — there was the evil. That the law should govern the king's will — there was the remedy [1]). Wakeman, Introd. p. 126.

And now began politics in deadly earnest for Steve. Patterson, Compton.

Lower and lower bent Uncle Charlie's head over his plate. Montgomery, Misunderstood.

At Canterbury and Silchester are remains of churches built during the Roman occupation. Wakeman, Introd., p. 2 [2]).

To His Majesty's generous permission is due [3]) the fact that the honour and virtue of this much misunderstood woman are now established beyond doubt.

Nedda, therefore, walked alone; but at her side went always an invisible companion. Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 14.

So down she sat and down sat he, the fire dancing in their faces. Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. 56.

2071. In the case of verbal groups other than the passive ones, the subject may follow a shorter group (*a*), but in other cases the first auxiliary only precedes the subject (*b*). It is only occasionally that a passive group is broken up by mid-position of the subject (*c*).

a. Throughout our Northern Europe has persisted this wonderful Christmas ceremonial of the home and the church.

---

1) Note that in this sentence *there* is an adverb of place, pronounced with a strong stress [ðɛər]. It should be distinguished from the introductory *there*, which is entirely unstressed [ðər]: 2063 ff.

2) A great number of examples of inversion are to be found in this book.

3) In this sentence the whole predicate precedes the subject to avoid separating *fact* from its appositional clause.

b. Day after day, month after month, year after year, would Molly have to sympathize with her father, and pity her stepmother. Gaskell, Wives II, p. 278.

c. Especially in the monasteries were young people instructed, many of them the sons of quite poor people.
Gill, Government ch. 13, p. 160.

2072. The nominal predicate can also open the sentence and cause inversion (*a*). In the case of a verbal group the auxiliary only precedes the subject (*b*).

a. Small indeed was my appetite.
Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 119.

Far different was the effect of Liddon, in those days, upon us younger folk! Mrs. Humphry Ward,
Harper's Magazine May 1918, p. 880/1.

The untameable, Ishmaelitish thing that Egdom now was, it had always been. Hardy, Return of the Native I ch. 1.

Another periodical of the 'nimbler and more familiar kind' came to life very soon after the start of *Blackwood*, and very warm grew the rivalry between the northern and the southern monthly. Camb. Hist. Eng. Lit. XII, p. 160.

The deeper we pursue our subject the greater becomes our distrust of accepting charters and statutes at their face value [1].
Times Lit. 28/2, '19.

The more abstruse his theme, indeed, the finer is his sense of the ring of words. Times Lit. 16/12, 20.

Particularly well arranged seem to us to be the two volumes on the Balkan States. Times Lit. 13/1, '21.

b. Great ladies must they be, at the web of politics, for us to hear them cited discoursing. Meredith, Diana ch. 1.

So serious was the position regarded in the west that in the Bristol diocese and some others the bishop has sent a circular notice to all the clergy suggesting that prayers for fine weather should be general at Sunday services.
Daily Mail.

1) See further 1532.

2073. According to 2069, there is usually no inversion when the predicate has more stress than the subject.

Up went this roaring dragonfly in which Peter was sitting... Up they went and up, until the world seemed nearly all sea and the coast was far away.
Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 13 § 8 p. 605.

He was delighted to see how much the squire Alan was already become. Sinister Street p. 986.

That way we run no risk at all. Vachell, Quinneys' p. 202.

2074. When the subject is unstressed it occasionally follows the simple copula or the first auxiliary (*a*), but it does not end the sentence (*b*).

a. Thus were we at open hostility with our only neighbour.
For two days have I been tramping over the mountains.
To the forgetfulness of the tomb must we all come at last.

b. Possibly Clym's fame, like Homer's, owed something to the accidents of his situation; nevertheless famous he was.
Hardy, Return of the Native III ch. 1.

Sentences with an Object

2075. When the object or an adverb adjunct opens the clause inversion is possible. But it is only the *first auxiliary* (not the complete verbal group, as in sentences without an object: 2070) that precedes the subject. From this statement it follows that in case of inversion the present tense and the preterite must have the auxiliary *to do*.

Many a dun had she talked to, and turned away from her father's door; many a tradesman had she coaxed and wheedled into humour, and into the granting of one meal more.
Thackeray, Vanity Fair.

So much skill and probity did he show in all his dealings that he gained a high character among the merchants.
Van Neck, Easy Prose.

Beatrice was Mary's friend, and many heartburnings and

much mental solicitude did that young lady give her mother by indulging in such friendship.

Often have I seen a man in that country kill a hog on the floor of his house, cut it up, roast it, and then offer the meat to his guests. Lamb, Essays.

Bitterly did I regret the perverse, superstitious folly that had induced me to neglect so obvious a precaution.

Had any one seen me, it must have been supposed that I was looking for something among the bushes, so closely did I scrutinize every foot of the soil and every tree.

Well do I remember the rambles of that spring tide.
Gissing, Ryecroft IX.

2076. In sentences with an object the normal order, however, is the more usual one.

In the year 1002 the English made a general slaughter among the Danes.

Command of countenance the Countess possessed in common with her sex. Meredith, Harrington ch. 15, p. 157.

Alan, however, Michael saw more often than last year, because Alan was very popular at Two Hundred and Two [1]).
Sinister Street p. 739.

He did not hear their remarks but that he ascribed to the deafening effect of the experiment. Wells, Country p. 216.

A cousin of Melchisedec's had risen to be an Admiral .... Him they besought to take charge of the youth, and make a distinguished seaman of him.
Meredith, Harrington ch. 3, p. 19.

The liberty they claim for themselves they are not anxious to deny to others. Pilot 1/2, 1902.

All these experiments in forms and methods of literary expression, our contemporary masters and mistresses of fiction have inherited. Lord Ernle, Engl. Assoc. Pamphlet no. 50.

2077. When a prepositional object has front-position the subject always precedes the verb (*a*). The same applies to

1) The number of Michael's lodgings.

prepositional adjuncts when the preposition is connected with the verb (*b*). See also 2185 ff.

a. Danger on the field the Major knew not of.
Meredith, Harrington ch. 5, p. 41.

All these complaints Molly had to listen to.
Gaskell, Wives I ch. 15, p. 255.

These details one could dispense with.
Times Lit. 12/10, '17.

This object, of course, Professor d'Alton has deliberately aimed at. ib. 12/10, '17.

Indeed, she was constitutionally unable to be afraid of anything, except motor-cars, and, of course, ear-wigs, and even them one must put up with.
Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 26, p. 323.

b. But boxing you and I are too old for.
Holmes, Autocrat p. 166.

The big hotels I doubt whether you'd ever be able to get out of, when once they found where you were.
Oppenheim, People's Man, ch. 14, p. 140.

Direct Quotations **2078.** In clauses following a direct quotation inversion is usual when the clause contains a noun-subject and a simple verb expressing a general meaning, such as *to say, to write* (*a*). When the verb has more meaning and weight, such as *to murmur, to stammer,* or is compound: *to put in, to go on* the subject generally precedes (*b*), although inversion is occasionally found (*c*). Inversion is also less common with pronoun-subjects (*d*).

a. "I have no words," writes Macaulay, "to tell you how I pine for England."

"So long as I have lived," wrote Alfred in later days, "I have striven to live worthily." Green, Short Hist.

"But I thought you said they were twins," said the Queen.

b. "There's virtue somewhere, I see, Thompson!" Sir Austin murmured. Meredith, Feverel.

c. 'You must not think,' went on Marlow.

Conrad, Chance p. 112.

"Everybody looks through their own particular tint of glasses. Some see life bright and rosy, to others it appears grey or black," put in mother.

A. Kenealy, Thus Saith Mrs. Grundy p. 26.

d. "That's your point of view," said she calmly, indicating that there might be another.

Cotes, Cinderella, ch. 22, p. 239.

2079. The inverted order is invariable with the archaic verb *quoth*, often preceding the quotation; also with *to say* in facetious use, both in prose and poetry.

Quoth the King: My ships are chosen each one,
But I'll not say nay to Stephen's son.

Rossetti, The White Ship.

Said John — It is my wedding-day.

Cowper, John Gilpin, 193.

2080. The normal order is almost invariable when the subject is a personal pronoun (*a*). It is usual when the subject is a noun and the verb is compound or has an object (*b*).

a. "I have never seen him," he answered.

b. "Stop boy!" the baker called out. "It's not enough."

"Oh! you women, you make such a fuss over everything," Uncle Podger would reply. Jerome.

"I shall be pleased to come," Dick answered him pleasantly.

2081. When a personal pronoun is stressed owing to contrast or some other cause, it may naturally have end-position.

"Davidson!" cried I. "What's the matter with you?"

He turned round. "Waves," he said.

"What's up, man?" said I.

"Bellows [1]) again!" said he. Wells, Country p. 88.

---

1) the speaker's name.

Objects

2082. Objects are normally placed after their verb, whether finite or not. When there are two objects, not both personal pronouns, the indirect object stands first so as to show its function.

I bought the book for five shillings.
I never noticed him.
We expected to find your brother at home.
He gave the man the necessary information.
He gave us nothing.
He has lent them some books.
He asked himself this with almost a belief in the supernatural. Garvice, Lorrie p. 23.
To show this clearly (viz. the inherent value of Greek) is the most hopeful way of securing Greek studies an important place. Times Lit. 23/2, 22.

2083. When both objects are personal pronouns the indirect object *usually* stands first (*a*), but the reverse order also occurs, specially when the direct object is *it* (*b*).

a. Agnes gave me them first thing when she got up.
Bennett, Anna of the Five Towns ch. 3.
She told him her story and told him it often.
Nation 12/7, '13.
"I have only a guinea in my possession," he said presently. So have I — exactly. I'll lend you it.
Niven, Porcelain Lady ch. 13 p, 189.
b. He told it me with such a direct simplicity of conviction that I could not do otherwise than believe him.
Wells, Country of the Blind p. 513.
"Shall I keep 'em for ye?" — "Yes, please." — "Then give 'em me." Bennett, Anna of the Five Towns ch. 3.

2084. Some verbs that can be construed with two objects can also take a direct object and an adjunct with *to*, others

take *for* and *of* (1875). This construction is chiefly used when the word in the adjunct is more important owing to its being mentioned for the first time; hence the word is often strong-stressed (*a*). When the objects are not both personal pronouns, the adjunct with *to* occasionally precedes the direct object if the latter has the greater importance (*b*).

a. My father gave the books to us.

My father gave them to me for a present.

b. Henry II. gave to England a good administration of the law. Stephen Langton gave to the government good law to administer. Wakeman, Introd. p. 126.

The Phoenicians brought them into contact with Oriental civilization, and the Greeks gave to them their own splendid achievements in arts and culture. Goodspeed, Ancient World.

Mrs. Meredith culled for her a few of the most resplendent blossoms — she could not have offered to any one anything less. Allen, Mettle of the Pasture.

Direct Object and Adjunct with *to*

2085. Verbs that are always followed by a direct object and an adjunct with *to (to dedicate a book to a person, to address a petition to the King*, etc.) are free to place the part that is most emphasized at the end.

Lord Derby described to us the steps which have been taken towards the better performance of the promise made to the married men. Times 16/3, '16.

I shall explain to you the details of the whole plan.

I put this question to you because I am sure you can answer it.

He protested that he took no notice of anything; he felt content to go steadily on his own way, paying to the remarks no attention. Pett Ridge, Name of Garland, ch. 7.

I have written a letter to the inspector.

2086. Direct objects can open a sentence. This order has been fully discussed in the preceding sections: 2051, 2054, and 2075.

Indirect objects can never open a sentence because their function must be shown by their place. See 875, 982, 1111, 1133.

The accusative-with-infinitive has been fully illustrated in the first volume; there seems to be no reason for discussing its wordorder separately.

Prepositional objects are treated in the sections on adverb adjuncts (2128 ff.). See also those on *Prepositions* (2185 ff.).

Predicative Adjuncts

2087. Predicative adjuncts generally follow the object they qualify. See 1883 ff. They can open a pronominal question *(What do you call this word?)*. Sometimes predicative adjuncts precede the object, especially when the latter is accompanied by longer adjuncts or clauses.

He leaves unsettled, indeed almost untouched, many obvious difficulties which stand in the way of his plan.
Times Lit. 29/6, '16.

Even the authors who have made illustrious the earlier decades of the nineteenth century have already (though very recently) taken their appropriate places. Times Lit. 26/1, '17.

They caused to be set up certain newspapers, published in Flemish. Times Ed. S, 1/2, '16.

There had been several moments during his talk with Clarissa when he had feared to see vanish that aureole with which he had encircled this gathering. Sinister Street p. 614.

She felt . . . . as if she were fighting to preserve intact her independence, her individuality.
Hichens, Way of Ambition ch. 36 p. 452.

2088. Predicative adjectives in free adjuncts follow the noun that serves as their subject. See 1893 f. on *Free Adjuncts*.

"Don't be silly, girls," interposed Aunt Bel. "Do you want to graduate for my state with your eyes open?"
Meredith, Harrington ch. 16, p. 168.

Attributive Adjuncts

Adjectives **2089.** Attributive adjectives normally precede their noun (*a*). In the case of the groups with *sort of*, etc. (820 ff.) the adjective precedes *sort* when this has retained its independent meaning, and when *sort of* qualifies the noun only (*b*). But when *sort of* is an adjunct to the group of the adjective with the noun it naturally precedes the group (*c*). See 1309 f.

a. Good words. A great difference.

b. A new sort of literature.

A funny sort of man.

(He) considered himself a hardened sort of brute, free of illusions. Bennett, Clayhanger I ch. 1 § 2.

c. "Yes, mother," answered Sophia with a sort of cold alacrity. Bennett, Old W. Tale I, ch. 3, § 3.

2090. Adjectives with the prefix *a-* are generally used predicatively only. Their use as attributive adjectives before the headword is rare and felt to be exceptional. See 1895.

Later Winnie found herself sharing a good room with the two fast asleep servants. Pett Ridge, Garland ch. 17.

A half-asleep soldier. Allen, Kentucky Cardinal ch. 3.

2091. When two adjectives refer to two specimens of the idea expressed by the noun, both adjectives may precede, and the noun may have the singular or plural form: *his juster appreciation both of the fiery and the official points of view* (Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 16); see 837 ff. Or, in the case of class-nouns, the noun may follow the first adjective, and the second may take the prop-word *one:* 1373 ff. When it is not a class-noun, so that the prop-word cannot be used, the noun may be repeated or not. The same construction is also possible in the case of class-nouns, especially when two classes are contrasted: 1388 ff. The following quotations may be added to those in the sections referred to.

Could it be, he thought, that this boy shared their bad qualities instead of his father's good qualities?

Burnett, Fauntleroy ch. 2.

The cathedrals of the English Church are distinguished as those of the Old and of the New Foundation.

Dict. of Engl. Church Hist. ed. Ollard.

As a student at Bologna he had made himself familiar with the principles of the civil and the common law.

Wakeman, Introd. p. 107.

This was one of the most notable features of the Mid-Elizabethan as it was of the Mid-Victorian age.

Times Ed. S. 7/9, '15.

2092. An adjective generally follows its headword when the adjective is qualified by a prepositional adjunct, or by an adjunct denoting measure.

A ditch five feet wide.

A child 3 years old (*also:* a 3-year-old child).

All the implements necessary for salmon-fishing.

A majority might, and almost certainly would, in such circumstances, be used to effect changes irretrievable in their consequences, and highly objectionable to the people themselves.

The *Pastorals*, written, according to Pope's assertion, at the age of sixteen, were published in 1709, and won an amount of praise incomprehensible in the present day.

Dennis, Age of Pope, p. 29.

2093. Front-position of adjectives with a prepositional adjunct, and of lengthy groups in general, is apt to have a strange effect.

Browning is a very great, though also very far from perfect, poet.

A handy re-issue of the long out of print and now expensive edition of 1876.

2094. Adjectives accompanied by a prepositional adjunct sometimes precede their headword and have the adjunct after it.

Those holy and humble men of heart. Hole, Memories.

Toleration to-day is becoming a different thing from the toleration of former times. Wells.

These writers are altogether on another plane from Jesus, and their mistakes are not his. M. Arnold.

Mrs. Tulliver had a facility of saying things which drove her husband in the opposite direction to the one she desired. G. Eliot.

Mary Thorne was learning music in Lady Arabella's schoolroom on equal terms, as regarded payment, with her own daughters. Trollope.

There is a story in Lockhart's Life of Scott of an ancient beggar-woman who, whilst asking an alms of Sir Walter, described herself, in a lucky moment for her pocket, as "an old struggler."

Covered with a checked cloth in red and white.
Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 5 § 1.

The girl followed their flight with grey eyes dimmed with tears; for the impending peril to the climber had cleared her inward vision. Vachell, Spragge p. 5.

Outside the four walls of his University the Master of a college, if a poor man, has an inferior status to that of a Bond Street tradesman.

Well, Mr. Utterson, you are a hard man to satisfy, but I'll do it yet. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 71.

2095. In many cases the adjective follows the noun because it is really used predicatively (*a*). This makes it possible for adjectives that are used predicatively only, to be used as adjuncts to a preceding noun (*b*). See 1891.

a. He won't have a penny left.

Vowels uttered with the tongue tense have a clearer, shriller sound, and a higher pitch, than those uttered with the tongue slack. Wyld, Hist. p. 44.

It was with a conscience uneasy that Edwin shut the front-door one night a month later.
Bennett, Clayhanger III ch. 15 § 1.

In all these cases, possession is a gentle term for enslavement, bestowing the sort of felicity attained to by the helot drunk. Meredith, Egoist p. 132.

b. You are the person not well, I think.
Gaskell, North and South ch. 13.

All the people present.

No man alive.

2096. Sometimes adjectives require post-position in a special meaning. Here, too, as in the case of predicative adjectives, the adjective is rather adverbial in function.

China proper has many towns.

There was yet a third kind of activity, distinct from that of literary work pure and simple, in which Dickens in these years for the first time systematically engaged.
Ward, Dickens ch. 4, p. 97.

The rising trade gives the lie direct to the stories of universal anarchy. Daily Mail 26/8, '12.

Such work is the business of the lexicographer pure and simple. Wyld, History of English p. 27.

2097. The adjective sometimes follows its headword for the sake of emphasis or rhythm. This order is naturally literary.

You tell me that money cannot buy the things most precious. Gissing, Ryecroft V.

For the wealthy, there are volumes magnificent, lordly editions; works of art whereon have been lavished care and skill and expense incalculable. ib. XXII.

Germany entered on the war under circumstances the most unfavourable that could be conceived. Times Lit. 2/11 '16.

He gathered welcome materials in fields fresh and pastures new [1]). Hole, Memories p. 33.

He looked upon himself as, to all intents and purposes, a Kentish man born and bred. Ward, Dickens, p. 1.

---

1) To morrow to fresh woods, and pastures new.
Milton, Lycidas, last line.

The sense of her loneliness, physical, spiritual, and intellectual, overwhelmed Sylvia's aspirations.
Mackenzie, Sylvia and Michael, p. 57.

He evidently thought that neglect of Burns was another true bill against the illiterate Englishman, a crime wanton, stupid, and inexplicable. Times Lit. 21/1, 15.

2098. The adjective always follows noun-pronouns (*a*); hence it also often follows nouns that have a general meaning, like pronouns, such as *thing*, *matter* (*b*). The adjective is seldom used after indefinite numerals *(c)*, other constructions being preferred *(d)*.

a. Perhaps somebody nice may come in your place; one can but hope so. Norris, Matthew Austin, p. 474.

I have talked over these matters with those best informed. Times W. 24/8, '17.

The general idea of all the rumours has been that something big is about to happen. ib. 9/11, '17.

There is nothing disquieting in the success gained by the enemy. ib. 23/2, '17.

b. But you will allow that in matters musical my opinion is worth something. Hichens, Ambition ch. 1.

Mr. Weigall has made himself a high reputation, not only as an explorer, but also as a writer on things Egyptian [1]).
Athenaeum, 7/19, '14.

His love of things theatrical. Ward, Dickens p. 18.

In matters Homeric we are, as Professor Murray recently remarked 'getting on.' Classical Rev. 26, 259.

c. (On this war) the author has not much new to say.
Athenaeum, 18/11, '11.

d. Mr. Z. has much that is helpful and discriminating to say as to progress in government. Times Lit. 16/8, '18.

---

1) Compare the following quotation.

The work is claimed to be "the first attempt to cover in a book of reference all Chinese matters useful to the student of Chinese things or the resident in China." Times Lit. 7/6, '18.

Little of interest is reported of these last years.
Herford, Shakespeare, p. 16.

The adjective seems to follow the pronouns and pronominal words because it is not clearly an adjunct, but rather an apposition. The pronoun is often subordinated in stress to the following adjective.

2099. The adjective has post-position in many traditional combinations, mostly borrowings from French. They are naturally frequent in legal and political terms.

heirs male; heir apparent; Lords Spiritual and Temporal; Vicar Apostolic; law-merchant; Knights of the Table Round.

Pronominal and Numeral Adjectives

2100. Pronominal and numeral adjectives precede their headword, and also other attributive adjuncts.

this man; the old man; my eldest brother; what new books?; three old friends; the first day; those three rooks' nests.

I didn't see a sail after the first three days.
Wells, Country p. 77.

Flora had accompanied him the first few times.
Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 5, p. 45.

In Mr. McNair's hands the events of the first nine months in the west fall into a simple and coherent story.
Times Lit. 16/3, '16.

2102. When a cardinal and an ordinal qualify a noun their order is generally indifferent.

In the portico of St. Gregory were buried the first six archbishops—Augustine, Lawrence, Mellitus, Justus, Honorius, and Deusdedit. Times W. 7/8, '15.

The Six First Heads of Oxford Houses.
Mainly About Books (1916).

I have now given you a description of Grammar and of its separate Branches, or Parts. I have shown you, that the two first of these branches may be dismissed without any further notice; but, very different indeed is the case with regard to the two latter. Cobbett, Engl. Gr., § 10.

2103. Ordinal numbers usually precede the noun; but post-position of the ordinal is frequently preferred for the sake of emphasis. In writing the Arabic numbers are found with the ending of the ordinals *(-st, -rd, -th)* or without, to denote the day of the month; in speaking the ordinal is always used.

The first chapter *or* Chapter the First.
28(th) August 1914 *or* August 28(th), 1914.

2104. Cardinal numbers used as ordinals follow the noun.

Chapter five. Act one, scene three, line 412.

2105. The adjectives and pronouns denoting number or quantity: *all, both, double, half, treble,* precede all other adjuncts.

all the people; double the sum, etc.
all his things, double this amount.
Half a guinea is a very common fee for a doctor's visit.
I make as little of it as I can for all our sakes.
Trollope, Framley ch. 35, p. 344.
She had all a woman's keen and swift intuition.
Peard, Madame p. 126.
It didn't seem half a bad climate [1]).
H. James, Daisy Miller.

2106. It may be noted that *double, treble, half* may form the first element of a compound, in which case the pronouns and articles naturally stand first.

---

1) Adapted from the colloquial predicative use: *it isn't half bad.*

The letter had made the double journey (i. e. from France to China and back).

A half-column of trenchant English; a half-smile.

He made a half-promise.

Oppenheim, People's Man, ch. 22, p. 221.

Note also the following.

The cabman was paid the double of his correct fare.

Sinister Street p. 501.

We thus make a distinction between *a half-sovereign* (a coin) and *half a sovereign* (a value). It is natural, however, that the distinction should sometimes be lost sight of, as in the following sentence.

We refused to waste the whole afternoon looking for half-a-sovereign which he said he had lost in the snow.

Punch 31/3, '15.

2107. When *all* and *both* qualify a noun-pronoun they are used as appositions; when there is a copula it generally separates the two pronouns (*we are all, we shall both...*). *All* and *both* are also used as apparent headwords with a prepositional adjunct (*all of us, both of them, none of you*).

I know all that.

In the middle of it all. Sweet, Spoken English p. 6.

They are all like that; they all have the manners of grown up men of the world. Sweet, Spoken English p. 94.

They knew their own minds; they were both enthusiasts; they both had strong wills.

Hichens, Ambition ch. 27, p. 330.

We none of us like to play second fiddle. To play second fiddle to a young woman is an abomination to us all.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 27, p. 279.

All of us are prepared to go.

2108. The indefinite article is placed after *such* and the exclamatory *what*.

Such a good thing.
What a fool!

2109. When an adjective is qualified by *as, how, however, so, too,* the indefinite article is usually placed between the adjective and the noun. Sometimes we have post-position of the adjective.

I am sorry to be the bearer of so unpleasant a communication. Burnett, Little Lord, ch. 2.

It is long since there has been such an important or so successful an inter-Allied Conference. Times W. 11/5, '17.

Cuffe would certainly have been asked to any other so representative a gathering. Sinister Street p. 554.

No, that was too blind a hope.
Meredith, Harrington ch. 34, p. 364.

However clever a retort it may have been, it was disrespectful.

2110. Occasionally the article precedes *too.*

An only too vivid memory. Malet, Calmady.

2111. Similarly to *so good a man* we also find *no worse a man.* See Stoffel, *Studies* p. 98.

2112. When cardinal or ordinal numbers are compound the higher numerals precede the lower ones. But in numbers consisting of tens and units the latter sometimes precede.

Four hundred and forty-six men.

Disappointment is disappointment indeed when it comes to abide with us for at best four and twenty hours.
Pilot 20/9, 1902.

At three-and-fifty a man ought not to be brooding constantly on his vanished youth. Gissing, Ryecroft X.

He was some seven-and-twenty years of age.
James, Daisy Miller ch. 1.

The bulk of the fifty or sixty tales from which this present three-and-thirty have been chosen dates from the last century.
Wells, Country p. III.

But during at least the first five-and-twenty of these thirty-five years Henry Fox played an important part.
Times Lit. 5/2, '20.

I haven't lived in this world one-and-seventy years for nothing. Pett Ridge, Mrs. Galer's Business.

The nine-and-twentieth birthday.
Wharton, House of Mirth, p. 2.

2113. When mixed numbers qualify a noun the fractions usually follow the noun; but the whole number *may* precede, especially with *half*.

Four miles and a half. Two miles and three quarters.
A pound and a half.
Six inches three fifths.
One and a half pounds.
A small quarto volume of vellum folios, measuring six and three-fourths inches by four and five-eighths.
Pearl ed. Osgood p. IX.

Three and a half years ago. Times Ed. S. 19/10, '16.

Present Participles **2114.** Present participles have the same place as attributive adjectives. See 514.

A flying squadron. A flying visit.
He saw the froth of each oncoming crest.
Gibson, Eng. Rev. Oct. 1913.

Past Participles **2115.** Past Participles that have fully become adjectives in meaning precede the noun. See 514 ff.

An illustrated paper.
They offered a determined resistance.
A practised student of folk-lore.
A Grammar of Spoken English. By Harold E. Palmer.
The work will be illustrated by numerous coloured drawings by the author. Athenaeum 8/8, 1908.

He was the best-loved and the best-looked-after elephant in the service of the Government of India.

Kipling, Jungle Book.

On the opposite side of the high road to the site of the destroyed church and mansion of Chilton Candover is a singularly fine avenue of old yew trees. Athenaeum 1/8, 1908.

The account of the beautifully-situated church of Tichborne .... is in the main well-written. In the screened-off north aisle.... ib.

2116. When the past participle is distinctly verbal in its meaning, suggesting the time of the action or the agent rather than a permanent quality, it has post-position. This also applies to adjectives formed from verbs with the ending [-əbl] *-able, -ible,* although they have not been incorporated into the verbal system [1]); see also 1445.

For extent and variety combined, the Duke of Northumberland's property is perhaps unequalled in the United Kingdom.

Escott, England I, p. 54.

It is a commonplace that the manner of doing things is often as important as the things done.

Morley, Compromise p. 9.

The arrangement adopted is a classification of books according to their subject-matter, with an index of authors.

Athenaeum 23/5, 1908.

But the beauties are so many and so great that if a few of them are spoilt there are still enough left to make Lauterbach one of the most delightful places conceivable.

Eliz. in Rügen.

All between, through the soft circling of the dial's shadow, was loveliness and quiet unutterable. Gissing, Ryecroft.

1) They are closely related to the verb, however. This is not only shown by their place but also by the fact that, like past participles, they often take adjuncts with *by* to denote the agent.

The idea of offering Mr. Critchlow a tea which did not comprise black-currant jam, was inconceivable by the intelligence of St. Luke's Square. Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 2, § 1.

There is only one wish realisable on the earth; only one thing that can be perfectly attained: Death.

Stevenson, Virginibus Puerisque.

2117. Sometimes the past participle has front-position, even though its verbal character is prominent.

Kirsteen passed into the fast-being-gutted cottage.

Galsworthy, Freelands, ch. 18.

He agreed with the same publisher to write two other tales; the expressed remuneration in each case being certainly inadequate to the claims of a writer of any marked popularity.

Forster-Gissing.

The majority of the hundred tombs excavated in the already-mentioned cemetery of Zafer Papoura.

Burrows, Discoveries, p. 98.

2118. The reason for the position of the past participle is often evident, according to 2115 f. (*a*). Sometimes the meaning of the participle depends upon its position; when preceding the noun it expresses a quality thought of without relation to time; when following, it is more distinctly verbal (*b*).

a. Two factors were needed for the maintenance of the now established constitution.

Gardiner and Mullinger, Introd. p. 81.

The principles now adopted are thoroughly sound.

Times W. 9/11, '17.

b. An involved problem.

It may at once be said that Dr. Morgan has made a notable contribution towards the elucidation of the educational problems involved. Times Ed. S. 1/2, '16.

An unheard-of insult. The objections heard-of.

Advanced opinions. The opinions advanced by Mr. A.

2119. When participles are qualified by a prepositional adjunct they have post-position, like the adjectives (2092). On participles in free adjuncts, see 553 ff. and 1894 ff.

Nouns **2120.** Attributive adjuncts may also have the form of nouns, either in the common case or in the genitive.

Attributive nouns, apart from those with a preposition, nearly always precede the headword.

A silver watch. My father's money. A mile's walk.
I took your father down by the two-fifty train yesterday.
Pett Ridge, Garland ch. 5.

See further the sections on *Number* and *Case* of nouns.

2121. Proper names are often used attributively. See 1723 ff.

The younger Giles children were pupils at the school.
Ward, Dickens ch. 1.
There are the Johnson girls, Margaret and Jane.
Sweet, Element, no. 69.
The Baines family had few friends.
Bennett, Old Wives' Tale II, ch. 2, § 1.
His grandchildren married into the Fortescue, Rolle and Lovys families. Baring-Gould, Old Country Life ch. 1.
The Framley property. Trollope, Framley ch. 15, p. 143.
The Gresham party. ib. ch. 29, p. 281.
How on earth does that Galer woman [1]) manage to put up with him? Van Doorn, Dramatic Conversations I, p. 71.

2122. In a combination of a class-noun expressing relationship and a proper name the order is indifferent (*a*). In names of firms *Brothers* always follows (*b*). See 818 f.

a. The cousins Povey sounded an alarm.
Bennett, Old Wives' Tale II, ch. 2, § 4.
The sisters Brontë. The three Brontë sisters.
b. Baring Bros.

2123. In combinations of proper names with class-nouns expressing a profession or title we have different degrees in the closeness of the connection between the two elements.

1) i. e. Mrs. Galer.

We may express it by the following series showing an ascending degree of closeness:

1. William III, King of England.
2. Dixon the hatter (no pause).
3. The watchmaker Lestrange.
4. Sergeant Mulvaney (no article, but even stress like the preceding groups).
5. King Edward (uneven stress).

Names of professions (with the article) may follow or precede the proper name (2 and 3); if the noun is a title it must precede (4 and 5), unless, of course, it is qualified by a prepositional adjunct (1).

See also 1275 ff., 1474, 1843 ff.

2124. Adverbs and prepositional adjuncts (including the post-genitive and post-possessive) always follow their headword. On adverbs converted into adjectives see 1801.

Hang your coat on the peg there.
He is a friend of mine.
The garden in front of the house.
Fortunately there was a vacant iron shanty, with a convenient loophole in it for firing from. Patterson, Tsavo p. 95.

2125. The prepositional adjunct generally follows its headword immediately but they can be separated.

He heard with a recurrence of the slight *jealousy* he had always felt *of Stella* that, although she was not yet eleven years old,.... Sinister Street p. 159.

See also 890 and 1094.

2126. Infinitives with *to*, whether with a relative pronoun or not, follow the noun they qualify. In the case of prepositional verbs the preposition precedes the relative pronoun or follows the verb. See the sections on the *Infinitive*.

The difficulty to find out the truth.
Here is a knife with which to cut it.

Rodney had always looked upon Dublin as a place to escape from. Moore, Untilled Field p. 11.

There won't be any corn to make bread of.
Sweet, Spoken English, p. 49.

2127. Sometimes two prepositional adjuncts follow the same noun, independently of each other.

The report deals with the questions of Parliamentary Estimates during the War, the control by the Treasury over the expenditure of the departments, and the effect on national expenditure of the increase of prices and the causes of that increase. Times W. 21/12, '17.

To the population of the Near East, accustomed to successive waves of alien conquest, there was nothing strange in the adoption by the conqueror of Constantinople of the title of Roman Emperor. Times Lit. 6/1, '16.

Adverb Adjuncts

2128. Adverb adjuncts are chiefly:

1. adverbs.
2. nouns with a preposition or without.

Adjuncts to Adjectives

2129. Adverbs precede the adjective or adverb they qualify. Prepositional adjuncts follow; the same applies to the adjuncts that may be looked upon as objects, and to the infinitive with *to*.

Very good; much astonished; very well done.

Several not at all important reasons decided him to flee.

Stella's unexpectedly prompt departure to Vienna.
Sinister Street p. 719.

He sat well back in the depths of his big seat.
Burnett, Fauntleroy ch. 2.

Her soberly rich dress had a countrified air.
Bennett, Old W. Tale III, ch. 1, § 1.

The place is easy of access.

(They were) suggestive of anything, proclaiming nothing ...
Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. 11.
The book is hardly worth the money.
It seems perfectly easy to understand his plan.

2130. The adverb *enough* [1]) always follows a predicative adjective (*a*). Generally it also follows an attributive adjective (*b*), but it is occasionally separated from the adjective by the noun (*c*).

a. That is likely enough.
I can't reach it; I am not tall enough.
Sweet, Element. no. 37.
b. He is a bad enough tenant. Burnett, Fauntleroy ch. 6.
He is a decent enough clerck. Bennett, Leonora.
The attack on the canal was a brave and determined enough effort on the part of the Germans. Times W. 26.4, '18.
A small room that probably has not a large enough window.
Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 6, p. 68.
c. The bishop seems to be a quiet man enough.
Trollope, Barchester ch. 6.
He was a fat-faced rotund young squire — a bully where he might be, and an obedient creature enough where he must be. Meredith, Harrington ch. 20, p. 207.
It was a pleasant room enough, fitted with glass windows strongly barred. Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. 12, p. 137.

2131. *Enough* also qualifies nouns. It may precede them, though it usually follows (a). It *must* follow predicative nouns that have no article owing to their adjectival nature (*b*).

a. I have enough money to go on with.
I thought that we had light enough, and ought to make use of it. Tyndal, Glaciers.

---

1) Note that *enough* is not only used to express a *sufficient* degree, but also, perhaps more frequently, to express a *high* degree.

b. Lady Lufton might, probably, hear that her son had been fool enough to fall in love with the parson's sister.
Trollope, Framley ch. 31, p. 309.

I fancied too, I had noticed — but was not philosopher enough to know whether there was any connection between the circumstances.... Brontë, Villette ch. 4, p. 39.

2132. When an adjective is qualified by *quite* or *rather* the indefinite article either precedes or follows these adverbs.

It seemed he must have stood there quite a long time.

A quite definite sense of suspicion and alarm.

The windows of the dining-room gave it rather an ecclesiastical appearance.

He eyed me with a rather sour expression on his face.

This was a rather contradictory speech, to be interpreted by intuition rather than by logic. Gaskell, Wives II, p. 110.

2133. This place of *quite* and *rather* before the article imparts a slightly different meaning to the sentence. In that position they modify the sentences rather than the adjective. Hence 'It was rather a coarse joke' suggests some hesitation on the part of the speaker to call the joke 'coarse'. In 'It was a rather coarse joke' the coarseness is assumed as a fact and an opinion is expressed only on the degree of coarseness.

Quite is also used when the noun is not accompanied by an adjective. In this function it is clearly a sentence-modifier (see 1834).

It is quite a surprise to me.

2134. *Only* either precedes or follows the word it qualifies.

a. One of those devoted attachments, of which only a mother or nurse is thought capable.
M. Pattison, Essays (Oxf. Dict.).

b. In one only of the casements.
Lytton, Leila (Oxf. Dict.).

2135. Very frequently, however, *only* is separated from the word it refers to, although according to the Oxford Dictionary, perspicuous writers avoid it. In spoken English it "generally occupies the pre-verbal position, and the word modified is marked by an appropriate nucleus-tone" (Palmer, *Grammar of Spoken English* § 386). In *I only saw my friend yesterday* the intonation decides if *only* qualifies *saw*, *my friend*, or *yesterday*. Thus also in:

I only asked the question from habit. Jowett, Plato.

Adjuncts to Verbs

2136. In declarative sentences adverb adjuncts qualifying the verb, whether adverbs, or nouns with a preposition or without, either precede or follow the subject with its predicative verb. The verb is not, usually, separated from its object. In pronominal questions and pronominal exclamatory sentences the 'pronominal' adverb adjunct opens the sentence (according to 2051). In other sentences the adverb adjunct generally follows the verb (with its object).

I saw the boys in the garden.
Did you see the boys in the garden?
Don't you go into the garden again!
Here you will find all manner of plants.
I did not see him anywhere.
I have been writing the whole afternoon.
Last night we had little work to do; it is much more to-day.
At first he did not know what to say.
The evening of the day on which she had had the above conversation with Roger, Osborne arrived. Gaskell, Wives.
We shall stay at home on account of the weather.
In consequence of this news the expedition was postponed.
The book was praised by many reviewers.
To my surprise he consented.

2137. When a verb is qualified by adverb adjuncts of place and definite time, those of place generally precede.

He was born here in 1875.

But compare:

The woman was a Christian, and, to oblige her, Timothy went weekly to church. Phillpotts, Forest on the Hill, ch. 1.

2138. It is possible for adverb-adjuncts to be placed between the subject and predicative verb [1]). Longer adjuncts, however, cannot separate an unstressed pronoun-object from the predicative verb.

I now see that I did them injustice, poor dears.
Cotes, Cinderella ch. 13.

Sir Oswald here gives an account of the War Seal Foundation. Graphic.

Locke had, at Oxford, abstained from expressing any opinion on the politics of the day.

I have to-day seen a brief, dated June 11, 1911, by Pius X, addressed to the Apostolic Delegate at Washington.

The *Novoje Vremya* yesterday printed the following outspoken words to which every public-spirited Russian will willingly subscribe. Times W. 26/1, '17.

2139. Adverbs, especially those of one or two syllables, are comparatively free in their place, and may often be placed between subject and verb. It is convenient to distinguish:

1. adverbs of indefinite time.
2. adverbs of manner.
3. adverbs of degree.
4. sentence-adverbs.

Adverbs of Indefinite Time

2140. Many adverbs of indefinite (or general) time, especially those of one or two syllables, *precede* strong (stressed) verbs or parts of verbs, *follow* weak (weak-stressed) verbs or parts of verbs.

Consequently they usually precede the simple verb, and usually follow the verb *to be* and the auxiliaries; if there

1) Schulze, Neuere Sprachen 20.

are more auxiliaries the adverb is oftener placed after the first than after the second (*a*). But they may precede any strong-stressed auxiliary or copula (*b*). They may follow a simple verb and have final strong stress (*c*).

a. He never comes in time.

And he sometimes thought that he could judge the world better than most neighbouring mortals.

Bennett, Clayhanger I ch. 1 § 2.

He has never done (= he's never done) better work.

He would often help people and as often be abused for his pains. (Here *be abused* must be looked upon as one verbal expression, opposed to *help*).

That boy'll never be quiet, unless he is spanked [1]).

The highly romantic life of the woman has been often glanced at with a view to its central episode.

Athenaeum 14/3, 1908.

Thenceforward her captain's worst anxieties were over, for she was in a sea which had been already ploughed by the Enterprise, a vessel of ten times her size.

Athenaeum 11/7, 1908.

Of his doings in the world, and of the sort of fame which he has achieved, enough has been already said.

Trollope, Barchester.

b. I slept beside a spring last night, and I never shall [2]) like a bedroom so well.

Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 6, p. 64.

If the matter were not so interesting, the manner would now and then exhaust the most sympathetic attention. The matter always is interesting, however. Times Lit. 12/10, '16.

He never could think that his wife had done him any honour in espousing him. Meredith, Evan Harrington ch. 2, p. 9.

"You make me so angry when you talk like that," Sylvia said. "Of course, if you think you'll always be a fool, you always will be a fool." Mackenzie, Sylvia Scarlett p. 117.

---

1) i. e. whipped.

2) [šæl] with the 'strong' æ, but not necessarily strong-stressed.

But the Suffolk Colthurst, *pur sang*, sets less store by the making of money than spending of money in the way it has always had money to spend. As a matter of fact it always has had money to spend. Snaith, Principal Girl p. 10.

c. The Conference is the only such body that exists. It meets seldom. It may not meet again till peace has been made. Times W. 9/3, '17.

2141. These adverbs, especially those of more than two syllables, sometimes have another place although they are not stressed.

He came to see us recently.
He recently came to see us.

M. Paul Sabatier recently has added to his own reputation and to our knowledge by discovering an early form of the rule of the Franciscan Tertiaries. Pilot 14/6, 1902.

2142. Compare:

1. He does not often do his best.
2. He often does not do his best.

In 1 *often* is part of the predicate (*often do one's best*) which is denied with regard to *him;* in 2 *often* qualifies the predicate *does not do his best.*

2143. In non-declarative sentences these adverbs follow the same general rule.

Who ever heard of such a thing?
Never mind what he says.
You never mind him.
Who has ever heard of such a thing?
Did you ever tell him why he was not invited?
Have you already told him we are not coming?
Would he ever have recognized us?
Are you ever in time?
Don't ever believe him.
Don't you ever believe him.
May he never fail in his duty.

Adverbs of Manner

2144. Adverbs of manner are placed as near to the verb as is convenient, consequently:

1. immediately after the verb, and where there is an object after the object.

"Don't answer back," Mrs. Baines repeated sternly.
Bennett, Old Wives' Tale 1, ch. 3, § 4.

At this Quinney smiled complacently.
Vachell, Quinneys' p. 194.

Tamlin rose, walked to the door, and opened it. He closed it softly and came back. ib.

Mr. Evans had made his selection wisely.
Observer, 24/4, '21.

My father had read the poem very impressively.

2. immediately before the verb, hence in compound tenses after the last auxiliary.

Our host carelessly said that a great Revivalist was to address a meeting that night.

They wonderfully enjoyed these hours.
Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline ch. 5, p. 244.

The history of the College is clearly and succinctly told.

The translation will be warmly welcomed by the serious student of psychology. Lit. World 16/1, '13.

I do not see how it could have been better done.
Cotes, Cinderella ch. 1, p. 6.

Anatole France is generally regarded as the foremost living writer of French. His warmest admirers have best realized the difficulty of presenting him to an English public in an English dress.

There were no modern conveniences, excepting a telephone, and that could be easily unhitched. Punch.

(This) might have been more cordially acknowledged.
Pilot 10/10, 1903.

Place may be the means of distinguishing adverbs of manner from predicative adjuncts e. g. when it is a comparative not showing adverb function by its form. See the quotation in 1194.

This chair is *better made* than yours.
Also He is well made *and* He is made well!

Adverbs of Degree

2145. Adverbs of degree qualifying verbs are often difficult to distinguish from adverbs of manner, e. g. *perfectly* in: *I understand you perfectly.*

Those that are pure adverbs of degree, such as *almost, entirely, quite, scarcely* are placed between the subject and the verb, in compound tenses after the first auxiliary i. e. they have the same position as adverbs of indefinite time (see 2140). See also 2146.

I almost think I will go too.
He quite agrees with you.
I have entirely settled the plan.
Once-fortified cities have destroyed their walls as being useless, and those at York have from time to time barely escaped destruction. York.
The *Daily Telegraph* declares that "Mr. McKenna, the seconder, almost seemed an orator," instead of "seemed almost an orator." Pilot 1/2, 1902.

Sentence-Adverbs

2146. Sometimes adverbs do not qualify any part of the sentence, but the sentence as a whole. Such are the adverbs of modality: *probably, hardly, really, certainly, surely,* etc.; they sometimes resemble those mentioned in the preceding section [1]). Another class of adverbs are those that express an opinion on the rest of the sentence; they are often independent of the rest of the sentence, and might even be called sentence-words. Such are *fortunately, honestly, mercifully,* etc. It is convenient to take the two classes together as *Sentence-adverbs.*

2147. Sentence-adverbs may stand:

1) *Hardly* e. g. may be called an adverb of degree in *hardly enough money*, but it is an indubitable adverb of modality in *I hardly know if I can do that.*

1. at the beginning of the sentence, or, less often, at the end. This position is especially common for the sentence-words.

Frankly this is a grave disappointment.
Times W. 28/12, '17.

He did not attempt to deny the gravity of the position. Unquestionably it is very grave indeed. ib. 8/3, '18.

Wisely, no attempt has been made to give a formal history of the larger states. Times Lit. 13/1, '21.

Artfully, she talked to the two women, who replied in monosyllables. Vachell, Spragge ch. 7, p. 109.

Candidly I had forgotten that there was such a county as San Lorenzo. ib. p. 197.

Briefly the facts are these.

Strangely enough he began to feel now that it would not be so hard to persuade her.
Hardy, Return of the Native III ch. 3.

The newcomers just glanced at the garden apparently.

There was a knock at the door, apparently gay and jaunty. But she thought, truly: "He's nearly as nervous as I am!"
Bennett, Old W. Tale III, ch. 1, § 1.

2. before the predicative verb and the auxiliary *to do* (*a*); but generally after the other auxiliaries and after the simple tenses of *to be* (*b*).

a. Mr. Baring rightly demands that Pushkin should be judged from the Russian standpoint. Athen. 18/11, '12.

A great war inevitably involves investigations into the bases of society, and much reconstruction.
Times Ed. S. April 1915.

Theological doctrine and controversy, unfortunately, do not make interesting reading for posterity.
Journal of Eng. Studies II 159.

b. Thousands will probably lose their lives.

We could not possibly be ready by eight.

In our present state of religious divisions it cannot fairly be contended that the presence in the House of Lords of twenty-six Bishops of the Established Church is an adequate representation of the religious interests of the community.

Still it must candidly be admitted that the extent of the royal power was in many directions ill-defined.

Maitland, Const. Hist. p. 255.

Babylonian civilization may be the most ancient, as it is certainly one of the two most ancient recorded in history.

Times Lit. 24/2, '16.

They were evidently dissatisfied.

That is admittedly a hard nut to crack.

Everyman 24/12, '12.

2148. Sentence-adverbs do not refer to any special word in the sentence, so that they are freer in place than other adverbs, as is apparent from the quotations in 2147. Deviations from the rules given above are frequent.

The immediate results unfortunately are already grievous enough. Times W. 2/1, '17.

But the members of the Conference, very wisely, have not confined themselves to such material considerations.

ib. 11/5, '17.

Her mother had not at first perceived the unusual; for mothers, despite their reputation to the contrary, really are the blindest creatures.

Bennett, Old Wives' Tale I, ch. 6, § 1.

2149. These sentence-adverbs if at the beginning of a sentence do not cause inversion, even when they have a negative meaning (see 2147). Note that they cannot open a headclause if a subordinate clause precedes. We can say *No doubt he will agree with me*, but the adverb adjunct must have end-position in *If he hears of this, he will agree with me, no doubt.*

2150. The negative adverb *not*, when used to make a sentence negative, is enclitically added to the first auxiliary. The auxiliary is necessarily stressed; so the adverb must follow.

He does not know what to do.

2151. It should be remembered that *not* is also used as a word-qualifier; in that case it precedes the word it qualifies. See also 2227 ff. and also 1346 ff. (on *no* and *not*). It may also be the object.

The advice was certainly not without reasonable grounds.

"Has my father then fallen, Monsieur?" she said. — "I trust not, Fräulein, but he is at the seat of war."

Buchanan, That Winter Night.

2152. When *little* is used as an emphatic negative it precedes the verb. It may also have front-position.

They little knew the man with whom they had to deal.

Wakeman, Introd. p. 10.

He little guessed that I knew Sherwood.

Fairless, Road-Mender V.

This use of *little* is confined to sentences with the verbs *know, think, care*, and synonyms of these; it does not seem to occur in the compound tenses.

Compound Verbs **2153.** Some verbs are not modified by an accompanying adverb, but form one whole with it. We may consider such combinations as semi-compounds: *to put on, to take off, to carry out*[1]). See 1891, and 2194 f.

2154. As a rule these compound verbs do not take stressed words between verb and adverb. Noun-objects usually follow the whole group.

---

1) Van Dongen, *Neophilologus* IV.

We are saving up money for a holiday.

But in the matter of breaking up grass-land they have not all fully realized the needs of the moment.

Times W. 28/12, '17.

The horse laid back its ears.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 18, p. 185.

There was no help for it; Sir Everard had to break off his discourse. Montgomery, Misunderstood.

2155. Pronouns are generally placed between verb and adverb. Mid-position of the pronouns is generally due to their weak stress (*a*), but we also find it in other cases (*b*).

a. My watch stopped at half past six this morning; I suppose I forgot to wind it up last night.

Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 81.

I cannot make it out. ib. p. 79.

Will you hand me down that hammer and box of nails?

ib. p. 37.

It may be useful to point this out to President Wilson's countrymen. Times W. 1/3. '18.

The Oxford and Cambridge scholars are far less likely than the scholars of a German University to spoil their careers by giving themselves up to the noble, but ill-requited life of a man of learning.

G. Birkbeck Hill, quoted In Praise of Oxford I p. 453.

b. I have not packed everything in yet.

Sweet, Element. p. 74.

The police would have found all this out within the next few hours. Orczy, Lady Molly of Scotland Yard.

As the President had thought nothing out, the Council was generally working on the basis of a French or British draft.

Keynes, Economic Consequences p. 42.

Machinery which will enable historical monographs to be ground out by persons who are as ready to grind anything else out will not make a great school of history.

Times Ed. S. 4/2, '21.

2156. End-position of an indefinite pronoun is quite common if it has sufficient weight, e.g. *everything, nobody* (*a*). Personal pronouns hardly ever have it. Demonstrative pronouns are occasionally found at the end (*b*), but rarely when they have no strong stress (*c*).

a. I have packed up everything.

b. George pointed his whip at a distant pillar of smoke, rising high into the sky, and flanked by low banks of blacker smoke.

"They can't put out that," said Hazel.

"They'll light a back-fire." Vachell, Spragge p. 160.

No one knew better than she that the labourers on the Malloring estate were better off than those on nine out of ten estates; better paid and better housed, and — better looked after in their morals? Was she to give up that?

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 12, p. 139.

c. Little was altered, but the big hall had been re-carpeted and the boughs lopped off the great tree which shadowed the library.

I pointed out this. White, Mr. John Strood, ch. 21, p. 196.

2157. Mid-position of noun-objects is frequent, especially when the adverb is short; although end-position of noun-objects is to be considered as the regular order.

He sought his sister out just as the dressing-bell rang.

Oppenheim, People's Man ch. 11, p. 103.

"Why has she asked me?" said Charmian to herself, laying this note down after reading it twice.

Hichens, Ambition ch. 5, p. 50.

You had better wrap those books up in a piece of brown paper. Sweet, Element. no. 74.

Those who carried the changes out were openly pleased that while they reformed abuses they wounded feelings.

Watson, Church of England p. 216.

2158. The chief cause of mid-position of noun-objects is their want of stress. This explains why a noun when mentioned

for the first time has end-position, and when repeated has mid-position (*a*). It also explains the frequent mid-position of pronominal words like *things*, *matter* (*b*). But noun-objects in mid-position may be strong-stressed (*c*).

a. We'll make up a parcel for them .....
On the morning of Christmas Eve together we made the parcel up. Punch, 25 12, '15.

b. Any committee which takes the matter up will have the encouragement and support of the Department.
Times W. 21/12, '17.

He sat down to think things over. W. W. Jacobs, Castaways (Strand Mag. Nov. 1916, p. 487).

He seemed to be thinking the matter over. Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 52 (*matter* is marked with weak stress).

c. His flow of talk is wonderful, he'll hardly let you get a word in edgeways. Sweet, Spoken English p. 76.

I've only got to get my boots on. ib. 82.

He borrowed some decanters of his landlady to put some wine in. ib. 83 [1]).

2159. Mid-position of other parts of the sentence than objects is rare.

He stopped at Masters's and looked sharply up at the name. Pett Ridge, Garland ch. 4.

His feet, which he lifts carefully up at the bidding of his keeper. Gaskell, North and South ch. 14, p. 113.

This opinion of hers was spoken simply out before the old man. id. Wives II, p. 168.

Parliament in its terror and its revenge took blindly up the old weapon of repression. Wakeman, Introd. p. 382.

2160. The adverb of these compound verbs, if they are intransitive, can also open the sentence. This occurs in the case of strong emphasis (*a*); also in participles without any emphasis (*b*).

1) All three quoted by Ellinger, in his review, Beiblatt zur Anglia, 35 p. 374.

a. That night there was a great crash. Down came beams, joists, tiles, the whole roof. Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 68.

b. They stood up-gazing at Miss Matty's drawing-room windows. Gaskell, Crawford p. 343.

The last good influence in the lives of down-going men. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 2.

2161. Mid-position of other words than pronouns is found only with some of the compound verbs. Others never show it; especially those in which the original local meaning of the adverb has become obscured or lost. Quotations showing end-position of a noun-object naturally cannot prove that mid-position is impossible. But it will probably be impossible to find or hear examples of mid-position of the noun-object of the following verbs:

to bring out the character of.
to back up a friend.
to get up linen.
to pick up knowledge.
to put on a serious countenance [1]).
to pluck up courage.
to rub up one's English.
to square up accounts.
to take up arms, too much room.
to throw out hints, a proposition, etc.

2162. Adverbs qualifying infinitives, gerunds, and participles generally have post-position (*a*). In compound forms the adverb is also placed after the auxiliary (*b*). The adverb is frequently found between *to* and the simple infinitive

---

1) The spelling *put-on* in Carlyle's *Heroes* (edd. of 1841, 1842, 1146) also proves that the writer took it for a compound.

Hardship, rigorous necessity was the poor boy's companion; no man nor no thing would put-on a false face to flatter Martin Luther. Lecture on the Hero as Priest.

(*Split Infinitive*), but this construction is generally disapproved of, at least in theory (*c*).

a. At first I was too much confused to observe anything accurately. Van Neck, Advanced Engl. Prose p. 40.

b. May I say, before leaving the split infinitive, that, in my judgment "to have been deeply dipped" is as good English as .... Pilot 15/3, 1902.

c. Russia has too sparse a population to properly open up the territory already hers. Pilot 3/10, 1903.

Lord Coleridge realised to the full that the proper end of punishment is to deter, and not to merely inflict pain.
Pall Mall Mag. April 1903.

To thoroughly appreciate Elizabeth's amusing and interesting experiences one must first rid the mind of any suspicion that it is selfish to go on a holiday by one's self and leave the husband, the Man of Wrath, to look after the children.
Academy, 20/2, 1904.

He apparently never allowed himself to just be happy.

Think of asking Agnes to really rough it.

I wish the reader to clearly understand the central principle.

The time has come to once again voice the general discontent.

The sun is obliged to always keep an eye on the rascals.

I wish I had told the laundress to well blue the clothes.

2163. The adverb *not* almost invariably precedes a non-finite verb (compare 2150).

She did not wish to reflect; she strongly wished not to reflect; but her mind insisted on reflection.
Bennett, Old W. Tale IV, ch. 1, § 4.

I told you not to speak about it.

At last he was silent, not knowing what to answer.

2164. The split infinitive with *not* is rare.

I don't see how you had the heart to not ask us.
Pam, Part II, ch. 3.

It is doubtful if he had quite listened — he having so

much to not listen to at the Home Office that the practice was growing on him. Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 16.

.... the young woman who attends to such matters (viz. brushing her mistress's hair) has been taught to fulfil her duties about a mistress recumbent in an easy chair before an open window, and to not profane with chatter that sweet and solemn time. Eliz. and her German Garden.

Exceptional Word order

2165. It has been shown that the order of words in English, although strict, is not without some freedom. Any part of the sentence may have front-position contrary to the usual order if it is necessary to give special emphasis. Sometimes front-position is not due to this cause; it may be the result of the part of the sentence being the psychological subject. Thus, in the sentence quoted in 1751: *At Southwell Lord Byron lived when he wrote his 'Hours of Idleness'*, Dean Holme meant or thought: *Southwell is remarkable because Lord B. lived there*, etc.

Word-order may also be emphatic by the simple fact that it is unusual, no matter whether the word has front-position or is put in another part of the sentence.

2166. The preceding sections represent the most important facts, but there are cases when the rules are deviated from. It is especially the adverbs that are comparatively free in their place.

Thus it is usual for objects to follow their verb immediately. But we sometimes find an adverb or adverb adjunct between the verb and its object (*a*). The place of the adverb adjunct is also unusual in the following sentences under *b*.

a. The Russian prisons keep well their prey.
A Mere Woman ch. 4.

He discusses admirably the development of the legend.
Athenaeum 21/9, 1907.

He announced curtly his intention of getting rid of the rubbish. Vachell, Quinneys' p. 15.

Husband and wife remembered guiltily their child. ib. p. 287.

The words of the Bishops express faithfully the mind of the Pope. Oxf. and Camb. Rev. no. 14.

b. Always she comforted herself with the reflection that .... Vachell, Spragge p. 12.

A little more detail would have been sometimes useful, as in the accounts of Grey's controversy with the New Zealand Company. Times 9/11, 1907.

Freshness of colour would perhaps be by some critics considered the quality .... Ed. Rev. Jan. 1903 p. 60.

But the *abandon* and extraordinary brilliance of the writing more than atone for these defects. Pilot 7/2, 1903 p. 147/1.

The exclamation was by the Foreign Office rightly regarded as the strongest testimony to the Ambassador's ability. ib. 14/6, 1902 p. 634/1.

The little town built against the hill nowhere straggled. Sinister Street p. 762.

Front-position of adverb adjuncts has been fully illustrated in the sections on inversion of the subject.

Fixed Order of Word-Groups

2167. Some words in parallel combinations are always or usually found in the same order. Many of these groups show alliteration. The order is in many cases merely traditional, in others it is clearly influenced by rhythm.

to keep watch and ward; bag and baggage; everything goes to rack and ruin; for weal or for woe; from pillar to post; in a rough and ready way; spick and span; we beat them black and blue; with might and main; betwixt and between; without rhyme or reason; few and far between; bat and ball; life and limb; hale and hearty; sum and substance; kith and kin; fond and foolish; live and learn; safe and sound.

milk and water; soda and milk; whiskey-soda; Oxford and Cambridge; Eton and Harrow; Army and Navy; bow and arrow; fire and water; arts and crafts; far and near; wear

and tear; ham and eggs; weights and measures; foot-and-mouth disease; for better for worse.

In many cases it is clear that the existing order of the words is not due to logic. Even where it *might* be so, as e.g. in *bow and arrow*, the comparison of other languages which have a different order in the same group, makes this unlikely.

But in *nice and warm*, *nice and sweet* the order may be explained as the result of the relation of the two elements: *nice* in both cases is an adjunct to the following word Compare also *rare and hungry*, *lovely and warm*, etc. [1]).

Subordinate Clauses

2168. As a general rule the order of subject and predicate in subordinate clauses is the same as that in simple sentences. As in simple sentences we regularly find inversion with an introductory *there* and when negative adjuncts open the clause.

We have seen that language and national origin do not vary together always, and we shall see as we proceed that neither do language and religion, nor race and religion, neither language and law, nor race and law.
Stubbs, Lect. Early Engl. Hist. p. 236.

The most optimistic authorities do not conceal from themselves that there is a bad time coming. Observer 28/11, '20.

Not that there was not both poetry and prose written outside this charmed circle. Mair, Engl. Lit. p. 30.

He remembered that his mother was small, black-haired and black-eyed, and that only once did he feel glad with his father.
Thomas, Lafcadio Hearn p. 11.

1) See Prick van Wely, Engl. Studien 39; 45; 48. A further list in Neophilologus I. A full discussion by Poutsma in Neophilologus II (*Hendiadys in English*).

The Labour representatives asked for an assurance that in no circumstances would conscription be adopted.

Times W. 5/1, '17.

She had heard much of him and his ways and egregious manners towards her sex, and she knew that never before in his life had he told a woman he would be glad to see her.

Phillpotts, Beacon I, ch. 6, p. 49.

2169. Inversion is necessary in clauses of concession (*a*) and of rejected condition (*b*) that have no introductory conjunction.

a. The fewer words he uses the better he hits his men off; and be they in big ships or small, fighting or merry-making, they are always alive. Times Lit. 12/10, '17.

Mr. Gibson bowed, much pleased at such a compliment from such a man, was he lord or not.

Gaskell, Wives II, p. 114.

b. Naturally, had I been the official in Bucharest, I should have given the girl her passport.

Mackenzie, Sylvia and Michael, p. 239.

2170. The same construction is occasionally found in clauses of open condition, perhaps owing to carelessness.

Would he, for instance, estimate the age of the oldest known rocks, he takes the amount of salt brought down to the sea each year by rivers. Times Lit. 28/10, '15.

Mr. Thornton said very little; but every sentence he uttered added to Mr. Hale's reliance and regard for him. Was it that he paused in the expression of some remembered agony, Mr. Thornton's two or three words would complete the sentence [1]), and show how deeply its meaning was entered into.

Gaskell, North and South, ch. 35, p. 291.

2171. In literary English clauses of rejected comparison are introduced by *as* (instead of *as if*) with inversion.

---

1) *Would* is not used here as in hypothetical statements; it expresses repetition.

Dear man, as were I a Cantabrian provincial, I should say.
Sinister Street p. 802.

Started by the pigmy power of Montenegro, the war has gone on blithely, as were money of no account.
Eng. Rev. 1915.

2172. We also find inversion in subordinate clauses introduced by an adverb adjunct, if the verb is of less weight than the subject.

Mr. Startup explained other objects of interest as he drove slowly down through the village to where stood the Oxenham Arms, the stateliest and most ancient abode of the hamlet.
Phillpotts, Beacon I, ch. 3, p. 15.

Guy had left his own room to the last, partly because he regretted so much the delay in the arrival of those books and partly because, however inadequately equipped was the rest of the house, this room was always the final justification of his tenancy. Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline, ch. 1, p. 19.

This is true, although even less now than for many centuries do the Churches monopolise the world's spiritual treasure.
Daily News.

This was the obscure removed spot to which was about to return a man whose latter life had been passed in the French capital. Hardy, Return of the Native II ch. 1.

2173. Inversion of subject and predicative verb is very frequent in clauses of comparison.

No writer has ever been more loyal to his school than was Thackeray to the Charterhouse. Whibley, Thackeray, p. 4.

Clear-sighted Russian patriots see this as plainly as do their well-wishers in Europe and the United States.
Times W. 21/9, '17.

Edward FitzGerald himself never had a closer friendship than had these two men for each other.
Life of Ainger, p. 133.

2174. Inversion occurs sometimes in concessive (occasionally also causal) clauses opening with a part of the predicate (*a*).

See also 556. But the predicative verb always follows its subject when the latter is an (unstressed) pronoun (*b*). See also 292 f.

a. Important as is this manner, it cannot be further treated in the present book. Brewster, Writing of English. p. 19.

Great as was its influence upon individual souls, it did not seriously affect the main current of the life either of the Church or of the nation, Wakeman, Introd. p. 448.

b. Middle-aged as I am, I get carried away by people.
Hichens, Ambition ch. 2, p. 15.

Such books, deeply interesting though they were, often made him feel almost sick at heart. ib. ch. 6, p. 62.

Often as the early Victorian age is decried, it had a charm of its own. Athen. 8/10, '10.

Freud essayed the problem single-handed, and, impugn his methods as we may, we cannot but recognize that his courage deserved the success that it achieved. Times Lit. 4/5, '16.

It was the imperative demand of a powerful king determined to have his will, cost him what it might.
Wakeman, Introd. p. 199.

Much as he had hated and dreaded the man; much as he had suffered from his companionship, — good reason as he had to dislike the whole family, — he felt himself bound by their late companionship not to betray him.
Trollope, Dr. Wortle ch. 21, p. 241.

2175. Dependent questions and dependent exclamations, like the corresponding principal sentences, may be introduced by a pronoun or pronominal word that may be any part of the sentence. Inversion of subject and predicative verb is frequent.

I should like to know who told you that.

As the diocese is the unit of the Church's work, the questions naturally arise as to how and when these various bishoprics were created, and why they were made?
Clayton, Dioceses of England and Wales.

What were Heath's feelings towards Charmian she could not divine. Hichens, Ambition ch. 9, p. 103.

The question for us is how far can the introduction of these Roman words be associated with the historical or political changes that have befallen England.

Stubbs, Lect. Early Eng. Hist. p. 227.

If we wanted a lesson how vital is style to the survival of any human memories, we might find it in this very instance. Athen. 18/11, '11.

My personal experience, especially in the case of Akbar, has shown how slight is the foundation for many current opinions. History IV no. 14, p. 75.

2176. Relative clauses with a prepositional relative adverb adjunct sometimes have inversion like clauses with other adverb adjuncts.

I had just been reading a patent liver-pill circular, in which were detailed the various symptoms by which a man could tell when his liver was out of order.

Jerome, Three Men in a Boat, ch. 1.

I remember our waiting in a room in which were several other people; most of whom had shades or bandages over their eyes.

2177. The relative pronoun generally opens the sentence, except in concessive adverb clauses; see 1156 on *Relative Pronouns*. On the place of prepositions qualifying the relative, see 2189.

2178. Sometimes two constructions are possible in relative clauses. This is the case if the relative pronoun qualifies the word that is the subject or object of the clause.

a. So we get this charming little book, **the newest thing about which** is, perhaps, its method. Times Lit. 29/10, '14.

Their first feat of arms was the conquest of a Christian city, **the only offence of which** was that it disputed the Venetian supremacy in the Adriatic.

Davis, Med. Europe p. 204.

The dispatch is full of records of actions **each of which,** in a war of less magnitude, would have riveted attention and inspired admiration. Times W. 4/2, '14.

There was nothing in (the room) but that desk .... and a narrow bookcase **the books in which** Cecilia unconsciously told off on the fingers of her memory.

Galsworthy, Fraternity ch. 8.

It amounts to this that they are ready to undertake work **the results of which** they can visualize.

Times Ed. S. 19/10, '16.

b. In the exercise and exploitation of his prerogatives he is assisted by functionaries **of whom most** are household officers. Davis, Med. Europe, p. 59.

And then, after they had lunched in an octagon room **of which each panel** had been painted by Van Loo ...

Chink in the Armour, ch. 13, p. 147.

2179. The construction under *b* is less common than the one under *a*. The latter is the only one possible when the relative is used adjectively as in the following quotation.

His brother Alfred, in the meantime, had drifted from work at a London bookseller's into the modern Grub Street, **his adventures in which region** will concern us hereafter.

Gissing, New Grub Street, ch. 2,

2180. Two constructions are also possible if the relative is the object of an infinitive or a gerund; front-position of the pronoun is by far the commoner construction, however.

a. It is a matter **which** few Englishmen care even to attempt **to fathom.** Times Lit. 22/2, '18.

This meeting reaffirms its strong adherence to the principles **which** the Primrose League was created **to defend** ....

Daily Mail.

Such were the main outlines of the life of the biographer. We may now turn to those of the life **which** he owes his fame to **recording.** Bailey, Johnson p. 87.

These people were the weeds **whom** Bridget had questioned the policy of **transplanting** to other fields and lanes.
Vachell, Pinch of Prosperity ch. 11.

Stella has had to take a studio, **which** I do not approve of her **doing.** Sinister Street, p. 550.

b. A deeply interesting book is this ancestor of the modern English dictionary **to describe which** adequately would take far more time than the limits of this lecture afford.
Sir J. Murray, Evolution of Eng. Lexicography.

There were various observances, **by adopting which** he could plainly show his antipathy to such men as Dr. Proudie and Mr. Slope. Trollope, Barchester, ch. 6.

The towns and the lesser nobility had no respect for resolutions **in framing which** they had not been consulted.
Davis, Med. Europe, p. 171.

2181. If the pronoun is part of an accusative-with-infinitive or participle construction, it must stand first (*a*). Also when the pronoun is an object to a verbal noun that is not an adjunct to the finite predicate (*b*) or to a verb in a sentence subordinate to the relative clause (*c*).

a. ... not unlike a genial monarch **whom** he was said by his clerks **to understudy.** Vachell, Quinneys' p. 125.

b. (He was) trying to regain that sense of warmth which he knew he must never confess to having lost.
Galsworthy, Freelands, ch. 14, p. 174.

c. .... especially as there was so much **that** Lady Tanner wanted to ask Lord Lippington if he remembered.
Cotes, Cinderella ch. 8.

In the following quotation front-position of *the scene* would cause it to seem the subject, whereas it is meant to be the nominal predicate.

The tragedy in ten thousand acts **of which** that bedroom was **the scene**, almost entirely escaped Sophia's perception.
Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 3 § 3.

2182. Only one construction is normally possible when the pronoun is a prepositional adjunct to another prepositional adjunct (*a*). Front-position of the pronoun is very unusual in this case (*b*).

a. When defeated in an action against a neighbour, **on success in which** she had greatly set her heart, she brought an action against the lawyer who conducted her case.

Baring-Gould, Country Life, ch. 2.

Cromwell began by destroying that Parliament utterly, **for seeking the arrest of five members of which** the King lost his crown and was put to death.

Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. 15, p. 166.

Mr. Neville Chamberlain's scheme for civilian national service involves the division of Great Britain into six areas, **for each of which** a deputy-director is to be appointed.

Times W. 26/1, '17.

To-night he was going to sleep in an hermitage **for the right to enjoy the seclusion of which** he had been compelled to fight very hard.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline, ch. 1, p. 11.

b. He spoke with the broad South Country tongue, which I was beginning to weary for the sound of.

Stevenson, Kidnapped.

In the following sentence we have a rare construction.

In whatever form and by whatever channel, the story must have reached this country during the Heroic Age — i.e. by the latter part ot the sixth century, **early in which** the action took place in Southern Sweden and Denmark and on the North Sea coast. Times Lit. 12/1, 22.

2183. The relative pronoun naturally follows when it can be considered as the object of the action expressed by the noun.

The root of M. Roussel's art is respect. He respects the public, contempt for whom is at the root of most artistic display and swagger. Athen 5/12, 1908.

(These experiences) led to the delivery of the "Apologia," his useful edition of which is Professor Butler's last contribution. Times Lit. 26/8, '15.

2184. Clauses of proportional comparison with *the* usually open with the part expressing the comparison. There may be inversion of subject and predicate if the opening part is an adverb adjunct, but in the headclause only. For examples see 1235, 1532 f,, and 1956.

Prepositions

2185. Although prepositional adjuncts have been treated in the sections on adjective- and adverb-adjuncts, it is necessary to add some remarks on the relative place of prepositions and the words (or sentences) which they make into adjuncts.

2186. Prepositions are generally placed before the nouns they make into adjuncts. As a rule the noun follows immediately (*a*); separation of the two by other parts of the sentence is impossible unless there are special circumstances (*b*).

a. The house in the garden. To talk of a question.

b. I was reminded of that letter years later when I came across in Amiel's journal a passage almost to the same effect. Mrs. H. Ward, Harper's Mag., May 1918.

The explanation of the sentence under *b* may be that the author took *across* for an adverb, forming a semi-compound with *come*, to which *a passage* is an object. See 2188.

On the separation of *to* and the infinitive, see 2162 ff.

2187. Note the place of *till* in the following quotation.

Socialistic ideas were, it is submitted, in no way a part of dominant legislative opinion earlier than 1865, and their influence on legislation did not become perceptible till some years later, **say till,** 1868 or 1870, or dominant **till say** 1880.
Dicey, Law and Public Opinion, p. 66.

2188. Prepositional adverb adjuncts containing a noun may have the noun put at the beginning of the sentence and the preposition added to the verb. The noun can in that case be looked upon as an object with emphatic front-position, and the preposition is hardly distinguishable from an adverb; but see 2195. The construction is also used with the so-called verbal phrases.

These reports Inglesant does not appear to have paid much attention to. Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. 1, p. 11.

The letter was brief, and said simply that the act of which Laxley had been accused, Evan Harrington was responsible for. Meredith, Harrington ch. 36, p. 378.

2189. We also find a similar order when the preposition serves to make a pronoun into an adjunct. This construction is especially common in interrogative (*a*), exclamatory (*b*) and relative (*c*) clauses introduced by *who, what, which.* See the sections on these pronouns.

a. What did you say that for?

"Then you really are coming?" said Queen Elizabeth.

"Yes, I really am," I sighed.

"What as?" ..... "Which room is the Encyclopaedia in?" .... "I forget who you said you were going as."
Punch 24/2, 1909.

He began to throw off the moss and leaves that covered the chain, to see what it was for [1]).
Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 62.

1) [tə sij whot ĭt wəz fɔə].

b. If the walls of that room could speak, what an amount of blundering and capricious cruelty would they not bear witness to! Butler, Way of All Flesh.

c. She dared not to tell herself that such an impulse was love for the man whose honour she had played with.
Pemberton, Woman of Kronstadt.

Only after clearing it did they remember the rearward pedestrian, whose probable wants Chillon was urged by Carinthia to speak of to their host.
Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 6, p. 68.

He would not in the least mind our having a good look at the country which, owing to his foresight, we hadn't grown up in. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 1 p. 12.

I am well aware that some people now begin to doubt about witchcraft; or at any rate feign to do so, being desirous to disbelieve whatever they are afraid of.
Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 58 p. 430.

(I) shall merely have to pass through what the weakest have had to pass through before me.
Rutherford, Autobiogr. p. 2.

It all depended on what one was accustomed to.
Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 13 p. 147.

2190. Post-position of the preposition is necessary in clauses whose introductory word is a conjunction. Hence we regularly find it in adjective clauses with *that* [1]) and *as* (*a*) and in comparative clauses with *as* and *than* (*b*).

a. I gave John Fry the soundest threshing that ever a sheaf of good corn deserved, or a bundle of tares was blessed with. Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 17 p. 108.

"For some reason that I am quite guiltless of", says Mel, "the hotel people gave out that I was a Marquis in disguise."
Meredith, Harrington p. 7.

---

1) See 1159.

And mind, I'm mud to the eyes, and over, carrying
Half of the country that I've passed through on me.
Gibson, New Numbers I, p. 6.

b. I have tried, however, to make the book as intelligible and accurate as the nature of the subject admits of.
Chalmers, Local Government, Preface p. V.

The business is certainly very bad; worse than I thought, and much worse than my father has any idea of.
Gaskell, Life ch. 18, p. 314.

This is a singularly straightforward way of stating a view which silently influences a much greater number of men than it is pleasant to think of. Morley, Compromise p. 88.

2191. Post-position is also necessary in adjective clauses (*a*) and adjective adjuncts (*b*) that have no introductory word.

a. The place they fixed on was Epping Forest.
Sweet, Element. no. 74.

I think Smith must have been rather unfortunate in the people he lodged with. id. Spoken Engl. p. 84.

The man in charge was one of those wooden-headed chaps you can't get a new idea into anyhow.
Wells, Stolen Bacillus.

And he had the mouth women put faith in for decision and fixedness. Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. p. 52.

The schemes he planned and failed in.
Times Lit. 30/12, '15.

That was the bench they sat on—there's the board
They took the meal at—yonder garden-ground
They leant across the gate of.
Browning, Ring and Book V, 1256 ff.

Do you know the forces you are up against?
Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 22 p. 260.

"What's the system?"
"Well! The system Dr. Lasher was brought up in."
de Morgan, Vance ch: 15.

b. The next people met with on the road to the Great Lakes are the Wa Kamba. Patterson, Tsavo p. 131.

Our guide showed us a wicket to enter in at.
Benson, Thread of Gold p. 30.

An English teacher once gave the following rule: Never use a preposition to finish up a sentence with.

See also the sections on the passive of prepositional verbs.

2192. When a word of the headclause is accompanied by a preposition that serves to make the whole subordinate clause into an adjunct (not a single word as in all the preceding cases), the clause can have front-position when it is introduced by a pronoun. This case is parallel to the front-position of nouns, mentioned in 2188. Note the last of the following quotations.

What I have commenced I am prepared to go on with.
Oppenheim, People's Man ch. 13, p. 133.

Look here, Harrington. What happened to you to-day, I declare I think nothing of.
Meredith, Harrington ch. 32 p. 346.

"Do you want my toe on your plate?" Old Tom stopped him with. ib. ch. 26 p. 279.

2193. When a clause introduced by a conjunction is similarly put at the beginning, the preposition must follow in the headclause.

That his treatment of Old Tom was sound, he presently had proof of. Meredith, Harrington ch. 41 p. 427.

2194. End-position of the preposition is sometimes obligatory although there is a pronoun to introduce the sentence.

Both Hume and Robertson in fact have fallen irrevocably into the category of books which no gentleman's library can be without [1]). Times Lit. 15/10 '14.

---

1) The implication is, of course, that they are not read.

They flourished together, they have rocked together in a war, which we, in spite of our enormous contributions and sacrifices, economically stood outside.

Keynes, Economic Consequences of the Peace p. 3.

The quotation upon the title-page will give a hint of what Mr. de Sélincourt is at. Times Lit. 28/10, '15.

I expect that's what you're after.

Van Doorn, Dramatic Conversations p. 49.

Lord Hubert Dacey whom she ran across on the Casino steps.... Wharton, House of Mirth.

2195. The cause of the necessity of this word-order is evidently that the preposition is necessary to complete the meaning of the verb. We have a sort of compound verb with an object rather than a verb with a prepositional adjunct. Note that we have a composition of verb and preposition here, not of a verb and adverb as in 2153 ff., for the two parts cannot be separated in this case by a pronoun.

2196. Sometimes the end-position is necessary to express a shade of meaning that depends upon connecting the preposition with the verb.

His nieces used to try and count up how many beds he slept in during the year. Life of Ainger.

What are you driving at?

2197. End-position of the preposition is naturally necessary when the pronoun also serves as the object of a verb without preposition, or of verbs with different prepositions.

Christmas is the Festival of Birth which we can all understand and rejoice in. Times Lit. 23/12, '15.

And a person you can laugh at and with is inexhaustible.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 24 p. 248.

My hands are free now.... free to shield; free to smite. Not for myself, but for the cause which I believe in, which I have devoted my life to, and which I am going on with.

Lloyd George in a speech, Times W. 4/7, '13.

2198. End-position of the preposition is naturally impossible when there is already a preposition at the end, or when the parallelism with another adjunct would be broken.

I was not in the sphere in which such belief was to be attained to. Wilde, De Profundis.

The friend who still believed in him, and on whom, as on a rock, had hoped to build a house of refuge for Man. ib.

2199. End-position of the preposition is impossible when the prepositional group has clearly the function of an adverb adjunct, i.e. when it can in no way be regarded as a prepositional object (*a*). See 2188, 2194 ff. Sometimes it may be doubtful if we really have an adjective clause (*b*); see 1938.

a. It is of vital importance that the public should not be deceived into the belief that any international system can be devised under which it will be safe for this country to depend upon any power other than its own. Times Lit. 20/1, '16.

What the artist is always looking for, is the mode of existence in which soul and body are one and indivisible. Wilde, De Profundis.

By the sharp tones in which he spoke of his brig, it was plain to both of us that he was in deadly earnest. Stevenson, Kidnapped.

The minister complained that it was a speech after which friendly collaboration was clearly impossible.

b. Observe the dignity with which he rises and brushes the knees of his trousers. Sweet, Spoken English p. 94.

His complacency and the air with which he stroked his red moustache and side whiskers were insufferable. Jacobs, Light Freights.

Down he would slide on the piano, a really fine musical effect being produced by the suddenness with which his head and body struck all the notes at the same time. Jerome, Three Men in a Boat.

The tone in which he said "I thank you kindly," penetrated Toby's heart. Dickens, Chimes.

The cruel severity with which the keepers of the gate of Russia could punish their own children, was remembered by him with loathing and regret.

Pemberton, Woman of Kronstadt [1]).

2200. In the following quotations the preposition could not be put at the end, but the whole prepositional adjunct might be omitted.

Nothing has amused me so much as the way in which she has received my enforced companionship. Harraden, Fowler.

I determined to commit suicide on the very day on which I left prison. Wilde, De Profundis.

Order of Sentences

2201. Both subject- and object-clauses generally follow their headclause (*a*), but they sometimes precede (*b*).

a. It is clear that he did not want to do anything.

I hope you will be successful.

b. That he has done it I fully believe.

That he has done it I am fully convinced.

Where Van Hepworth is now, who knows?

Waugh, Loom of Youth III. ch. 8 p. 246.

What we have we have only from manuscripts.

Observer, 30/10, '21.

That he was dead, there could be no doubt.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 1 p. 2.

How different was the attitude of France, in spite of her troubled politics, there is no need to explain.

Times Lit. 19/10, '16.

What were his thoughts he uttered no word which might discover. Hawthorne, Twice-Told Tales p. 7.

---

1) Nearly all the quotations in this section are borrowed from an article in *Drie Talen* by *Mr. Volbeda.*

The reason for the subordinate clauses preceding the headclause, is that they are the psychological subject. This also explains the sentence-order of 2202 f.

2202. Object clauses cannot always precede the headclause. The headclause, if unimportant, would acquire an unnatural emphasis by end-position.

I expect he has done it to save himself trouble.

I am glad you think so.

I am afraid I don't agree with you [1]).

2203. Subject clauses must precede if they open with a relative pronoun. This does not apply to sentences with the provisional *it* (1967 f.), nor to the case that there is an antecedent pronoun.

Who steals once is for ever a thief.

Whoever has mastered his Macaulay will be prepared to find that the "Estimate" is not all pitch-black or all of a piece. Times Lit. 12/2, '20.

He must needs go whom the devil drives.

2204. Predicate clauses rarely open the sentence.

What Eastbourne is to the Duke of Devonshire, that Tynemouth is to his Grace of Northumberland.

Escott, England I. 53.

2205. Adjective clauses always follow the headword as immediately as possible. When a noun is accompanied by an adjective clause and a dependent question the latter must therefore precede.

Whether in the present state of our knowledge compilations of this kind should be encouraged is a question upon which we will not enter. Times Lit. 12/2, '20.

---

1) Both in this sentence and in the first it would be possible to reverse the order of the clauses, but the intonation of the first clause would be falling in both cases, and *I expect* or *I am afraid* would be an appended sentence. This also explains why the conjunction *that* could not open the sentence. See 2225.

2206. Adverb clauses are freer in their place. As a rule they can either precede or follow the head clause. Concessive clauses with *as, how* and with relative pronouns generally precede. Clauses of reason with *as* also usually precede; those with *because* generally follow the head clause.

They would show that they were willing to respect the office, much as they might dislike the man.
Trollope, Barchester ch. 10 p. 74.

2207. Front-position of comparative clauses with *than* is quite exceptional, and purely literary.

Than James Forsyte, nothwithstanding all his 'Jonah-isms', there was no saner man.
Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 6 p. 85.

2208. Adverb clauses may separate subject and predicate, but only if the subject is a noun or a strong-stressed pronoun (*a*). The same applies to longer adjuncts not containing a predicative verb (*b*). If the pronoun-subject is weak-stressed, the adverb clauses may follow the conjunction (*c*).

a. When he died, in 1870, Dickens was still at the height of his fame. The public idolized him, and critical readers, though they had a good deal to say against him, did not question his greatness. Bradley, Reaction p. 3.

b. Indeed, extremists go the length of maintaining that attendance at a university tends to disqualify for work in the more rudimentary and utilitarian branches of school work, because it, in the colloquial phrase, "puts ideas into their heads." Times Ed. S. 21/8, '19.

Benjamin Haydon, in one of his too rare intervals of forgetfulness of his mission to surpass Michael Angelo, had a happy idea. Times Lit. 12/2, '20.

c. He heard with a recurrence of the slight jealousy he had always felt of Stella that, though she was not yet eleven years old, she was going to Germany. Sinister Street p. 159.

2209. An adverb clause can also separate verb and object.

We neither admire, as we should, those who can make it its richest music, nor hate as we should those who debase and defile it. Times Lit. 23/9, '15.

MEANING OF SENTENCES

2210. In the preceding sections the forms and functions of sentences and their relations to each other have been discussed. When we consider the meanings expressed by the various forms it appears that difference of form is not by any means invariably accompanied by a corresponding difference of meaning. In other words, the same thought may be expressed by different kinds of sentences. It makes no difference in meaning whether we say *Mr. Healy was Parnell's discovery* (Observer, 10/12, 22), or *Mr. Healy was discovered by Parnell:* the distinction between a verbal or a nominal sentence is purely formal. Neither is there a difference of meaning between *I believe he has done it, though I am not certain of it* (subordination of the last sentence to the first) and *I believe he has done it; I am not certain of it, though* (coordination of two sentences).

2211. Although there is no difference of meaning, the difference in the expression may have a definite cause: the coordinate sentence at the end of the preceding section represents the second idea as little more than an afterthought. Sometimes there seems to be no difference at all; thus we might use a compound sentence opening with *It seems (to me)* instead of the personal construction in the two following sentences.

> I seem to see something, she said. Bennett, Anna p. 162.
>
> I seem to know these fields again; I am sure I have seen that elm before. Sweet, Element, no. 65.

Similarly we can say *It happened that he came* or *He happened to come; He is confident that he will be succesful* or *He is confident of success.*

2212. For purposes of grammar it is necessary also to classify sentences according to the meaning expressed. Such a classification is especially necessary in discussing the order of words, but in other cases, too, it is useful, as has been shown in 1993 ff. We distinguish sentences (whether simple or not) as:

1. declarative.
2. interrogative.
3. exclamatory.
4. optative.
5. imperative.

This classification, however, is not based on meaning only. A declarative sentence may express a wish or a command (*I hope John is coming; You must go immediately*); it really means a sentence with normal wordorder, and also, perhaps, falling intonation.

Interrogative, exclamatory, and optative sentences are sentences with inverted order serving to express a question, exclamation, or wish. We include the questions that open with a pronoun among the interrogative (or exclamatory) sentences, if they have a corresponding meaning.

Imperative sentences are such as contain an imperative form of a verb, even though they do not necessarily express a command; see 218 ff.

2213. Interrogative sentences open with an interrogative word, or they have a rising intonation. On repeated questions, see 1923.

Interrogative sentences opening with an interrogative word are called *pronominal*. The others are called *disjunctive* because the answer required is either *yes* or *no*.

Disjunctive sentences may have the introductory *is it: Is it your father who wants you to do that?*

Among the disjunctive interrogative sentences we include the alternative sentences (*Is he right or wrong? — Are you going out or do you prefer to stay at home?*).

The enclitic appended questions have been illustrated in 610 f.

2214. A sentence may have the order of a declarative sentence but a rising intonation. This construction is used for a question to which an affirmative answer is confidently expected.

"By Heaven!" he cried, "you're of the Burlesdons?"
Hope, Zenda ch. 3.

"Then you have not left the old firm?"
"Rather not."
"And there is nothing wrong?"
"I hope not. I've just been made a partner."
Sidgwick, Severins, ch. 1, p. 13.

"You got my wire from Marseilles, Mrs. Charmian?"
"Oh, yes, I was expecting you! But I did not know when."
Hichens, Ambition ch. 27.

"You take James for a fool?"
"Not me." Vachell, Quinneys' p. 196.

2215. Interrogative sentences do not always express a request for information; they may express astonishment or the indignant repudiation of an idea. In these cases they are closely related to the exclamatory sentences, which may also be formally like them, but exclamatory sentences frequently have no finite verb. See 508 f. and 567 f.

What a hard winter that was! It froze straight on for two months. Sweet, Element. no. 65.

"However could I explain such an arrangement to Jack Carton!" she protested. Oppenheim, A People's Man ch. 11.

The schemings to obtain and to hide Gerald's letters at the shop, and to reply to them! etc.
Bennett, Old W. Tale III ch. 1, § 1

"Incredible ass that I am," she thought.
Mackenzie, Sylvia and Michael p. 225.

"Old Lord Doleford and his father broke the entail, and it's twenty years since the last possible penny was put on it in mortgages. Isn't it wicked? One of the loveliest places in England." Cotes, Cinderella ch. 11.

... and then indeed I saw the house, but no trace of Graham. I felt as if the house had swallowed him up, as indeed it had. What lives and hearts and fortunes had it not already devoured, that exquisite stone house!
Cotes, Cinderella ch. 18.

Also in dependent clauses.

Goodness knows what tricks they didn't play to get your aunt's money — every penny of it!
Bennett, These Twain III. ch. 20 § 4.

He had a notion that living with a woman was comparable to living with a volcano — you never knew when a dangerous eruption might not occur. ib. III ch. 20 § 2.

2216. Exclamatory sentences may have an introductory conjunction so that they resemble a subordinate clause in form. Sometimes, in this case, the sentence expresses a wish.

„What have you done to it?"
"Done! how could I do anything to it? As if you didn't know that!" Anstey, Vice Versa ch. 2.

That he should turn against us after all his professions of friendship! Oxf. Dict.

That you should forget such a request.

If I had only known in time!

2217. Imperative sentences are such as contain an imperative. When there is a subject it is impossible to say whether the verb is an imperative or an indicative, except in the case of *to be*. In meaning the sentence is imperative, however.

You do your own work, and leave others alone.
Now, Joey, you be a good boy and 'and me out the tea-things. de Morgan, Vance ch. 4, p. 41.

A sentence may very well have the wordorder of a declarative sentence, and be imperative in meaning. This is often the case when the predicative verb is in a future tense; see 128.

2218. Subordinate clauses do not show their different meanings by their wordorder, but the same classification is possible.

1. dependent statements.

I hope that he will come.
He told me that he could not come.

2. dependent desires (commands, requests, entreaties, wishes).

He demanded that it should be done immediately.
I wish I had never said a word about it,

3. dependent questions, which may be pronominal (*a*) or disjunctive (*b*).

a. I wonder what he will say.
I asked him how he liked it.
b. I wonder if he heard it.

4. dependent exclamations.

See how they run.

All of the above examples are object clauses. Other clauses can also be distinguished in the same or a similar way but there is generally no cause for it, except perhaps in the case of subject clauses that may be called dependent questions on account of their form as well as their meaning.

Which of the two deserved best of his country is not open to doubt. Judge Stephen in Introd. to Cobbett's Grammar p. XVII.

Whether or no to tell her of the kick-up at Joyfields' exercised his mind. Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 25, p. 306.

2219. We sometimes find dependent statements introduced by an interrogative word.

It is plain from this account how the severity of the struggle was not in all respects anticipated. Times Lit. 16/9, '15.

2220. As in the case of indirect style (1921) we also have a mixture of independent and dependent wordorder in these cases, in spoken English.

"I wonder," said she — "I wonder does the man exist who can bear disappointment without becoming like that?" Temple Thurston, City II ch. 2.

He asked would I go and post it for him?

The rising intonation at the end of the headclause shows the following clause to be subordinate. In the last quotation the character is also shown by the concord of tense.

2221. Adverb clauses have been distinguished according to their meaning (1939) because the use of the verbal mood and of the auxiliaries depends upon it. In a similar way relative clauses might be classified; they do not only restrict or define the meaning of the antecedent, but often express a relation of cause, purpose, or condition. This often causes auxiliaries to be used; see the first volume.

2222. Instead of considering what are the meanings expressed by the forms of sentence-structure that are current in a given language, it is possible, and instructive, to consider what are the forms that are available in a language to express certain meanings.

We may ask, with reference to present-day English, what are its means

1. of expressing the statement of facts, as contrasted with thoughts, wishes, commands (*modality*).
2. of expressing negation.
3. of emphasizing a statement, wish, question, command, or negation.
4. of putting questions, with the corresponding methods of answering.

Modality **2223.** Modality may be expressed by:

1. a mood, i. e. verbal form whose function it is to express modality.
2. a tense, i. e. a verbal form that is principally used to express time.
3. wordorder.
4. intonation.
5. verbs of full meaning.
6. auxiliaries.
7. adverbs.

2224. The moods and the tenses, and wordorder, have been fully treated in the first volume and in the present. It has also been shown above that intonation serves chiefly to distinguish questions from other sentences; as a rule the intonation of a question is accompanied by a special wordorder, but it has been shown that declarative wordorder may be accompanied by a rising intonation (2214).

2225. We have verbs of full meaning in a modal function in sentences like the following.

He *seems* to be a nice man.
He is quite trustworthy, I *think*.
I *think* he is quite trustworthy.

In analysing a sentence like the last we call the first clause (*I think*) the headclause, the rest an object clause. This is because we really consider the form of the sentence in the first place. If we considered its meaning only we might call *he is quite trustworthy* in both of the two last sentences a headclause, and *I think* an adverb clause of modality (Cf. *In my opinion he is trustworthy*).

On the other hand, there is a greater difference between the following pair of sentences.

I hope he'll be in time.
He'll be in time, I hope.

In the former we may consider *I hope* as the headclause, and the whole sentence as a simple statement of one's expectation about the future. The second sentence, however, expresses a wish that he may be in time. See note to 2202.

2226. Modal auxiliaries have been discussed in the chapter on Auxiliaries in Volume I.

The modal character of *to happen* is shown in an interesting way in the following quotation.

> I should have been proud to be an American if it had happened that way; but as it didn't happen to happen I am prouder to be what I am. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 2.

Adverbs of modality have been mentioned in 1852 f. When we compare English with other Indogermanic languages we may say that English does not make a frequent use of adverbs of modality. It is especially poor in those adverbs that have no independent meaning but only serve to modify the sentence, the so-called particles, which are so frequent in other languages [1]).

---

1) e. g. Dutch *wel, ook;* German *wohl, nur, doch;* Greek μὲν, ἀν, κὲν; French *donc* (*Qui donc l'affligeait?*), *ça* (*Qui ça, Antoine?*): Brunot, *La Pensée et la Langue*, p. 499.

Among the most important of such particles in English are *actually* and *surely*. *Actually* suggests surprise; *surely* suggests doubt, and is often used to invite the agreement of the person addressed, so that the sentence becomes more or less clearly interrogative [1]).

> (The Earl) actually began to find himself entertained.
> Burnett, Little Lord ch. 8.
>
> Surely the modern "resplend" is not a revival, but intended to be taken as a facetious back-formation from "resplendent."
> Athenaeum 8/8, 1908.
>
> The *schöne aussicht* was indisputable, but to choose the loveliest spot and blot its beauty with a coloured glass restaurant so close to a place full of restaurants is surely unusually profane. Elizabeth in Rügen p. 127.
>
> Surely a place that inspired such a mingling of the lofty and the homely in its guide-books must be well worth seeing?
> ib. p. 9.
>
> Leaders of American Society, *The Daily Telegraph* tells us, are protesting against the extravagance of diamond studded shoes. But surely it is better to be brilliant at the wrong end than at neither end? Punch 20/3, 12.

Negation **2227.** Among the adverbs of modality the most important are those of negation. A negative adverb may serve:

1. to make the combination of subject and predicate negative: *sentence-negation.*

2. to make one part of a sentence negative: *word-negation.*

We have sentence-negation in *It isn't true*; word-negation in *He sits not a dozen yards away.*

It may be noted that the sentence-negative *not* is generally [nt]; the word-negative is [not]. Accordingly we can distinguish *It wasn't unpleasant* from *It was not* [not] *unpleasant.* See also 647 f.

---

1) This explains why there is frequently a note of interrogation.

On *no, none, nothing, (n)either, naught* see *Indefinite Pronouns*.

2228. A sentence may be made negative by making another part of it negative than the predicative verb (or copula). Thus we have a negative sentence when we say that there is no time or place in which the predicate can be applied to the subject: *He never comes in time. It is nowhere to be found.* This explains how *I never said so* comes to mean: *I did not say so at all.*

The use of *neither* in the following quotation shows that the preceding sentence is negative; for if it was not, *nor* would have been used; see 1908.

> Mr. Mais is nowhere formidable, he is no root-and-branch reformer; neither has he, apparently, any fads.
>
> Times Ed. S. 6/6, '16.

A sentence may also be negative because its subject is negative: *nobody will agree with that.*

2229. It has been pointed out in 647 f. that the auxiliary *to do* is used when *not* is a sentence-negative. But when a predicative verb is qualified by an infinitive or clause with a negative meaning the predicative verb itself is often made negative instead. This construction is very frequent in colloquial English; *not* does not serve to make the finite verb negative, but the whole group of verb with infinitive or clause.

> *a.* I don't seem to be able to do it.
>
> He can't seem to shake off his cold.
>
> And everything says 'It's all happened before,' but I don't know where, and I am waiting, waiting for nothing, and I don't seem to care very much for any one. Romer Wilson, Death of Society (quoted Observer 1/5, '21).
>
> "Oh, but it's so unlucky!" was her hasty reply. "Don't let us think of it." Mrs. H. Ward, William Ashe, p. 285.

Do not let us misjudge him .... Magnus, Primer p. 14.

And another thing I can't seem to get used to is having the fish after the meat. Mackenzie, Sylvia p. 349.

He did not seem to have changed.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV, ch. 2, § 1.

It has been like falling out of a prison from which one never hoped to escape. Wells, Harman ch. 12, § 5, p. 454.

b. She did not feel that it was anything more than a partial remedy for a special evil. ib. ch. 10, § 3, p. 310.

Clara did not think that it mattered.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 8, p. 85.

She did not suppose that she should ever see again this companion of a few hours. Mackenzie, Rich Relatives I p. 32.

2230. In the following case we have the opposite: word-negation where the whole sentence is meant to be negative.

Of hydraulic pressure and the differential calculus Tudor knew nothing, and pretended to know nothing.

Trollope, Three Clerks, p. 6.

He knew nothing of their history, and wished to know nothing. Bennett, Clayhanger II ch. 10 § 1.

I, personally, have entirely believed in none of Miss Wilson's books as yet, though in their details truth has confronted me on every page. J. C. Squire in Observer 1/5, 21.

Stormed by an attack of *cacoethes scribendi*, after those few blank days at Becket, Felix saw nothing amiss with his young daughter. Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 14.

2231. We also have negative sentence-modifiers in *hardly*, *scarcely*, *little*. They are often used to give a mild form to the negation.

I hardly know what the word is derived from, but it might possibly mean .... Benson, Thread of Gold p. 47.

There is no disputing the fact that the reading market — we can hardly say the literary market — is flooded in the twentieth century. Athenaeum, 16/10, '15.

2232. The negative meaning of *hardly* and *scarcely* allow these words in combination with *any* (and its compounds) to be an equivalent of *almost* with a negative. The latter, indeed, is far less common, although it does occur.

I have seen hardly (scarcely) anything.

It can hardly be doubted.

To our eternal disgrace as a polite nation, we are content to know almost nothing at all of Middle English.

Times Lit. 16/3, 22.

Beyond these semi-public entertainments there was almost nothing, in the evening, save card-parties.

Bennett, These Twain III ch. 20 § 6.

I have begun the season (of angling) in many places and many ways on all sorts of water, and I have come to the conclusion that there is something fatal about the fact of beginning. You will amost never do anything worthy of triumph-songs on that first day. An Angler's Dozen, in Oxf. and Camb. Rev. no. 10 (1910) p. 122.

2233. We also find *also not* instead of the usual *neither, not ... either.*

Speculative markets have also not been idle.

Pilot, 30/4, 1904.

It is, indeed, not ordinary conversational speech; but it is also not declamatory. Ripman, Specimens.

His identification with George of Cappadocia .... is no longer possible. It is also not quite easy to identify the unnamed Christian .... with St. George. Lit. World 1907.

2234. The negative meaning of *hardly, scarcely, only,* and *little* is the explanation of the inverted word-order when these words open a sentence (2046 ff.); also of the place of *little* before the finite verb (2152). It also explains the use of *no* in confirming a question containing these words, as shown in 1355; and the absence of *not* in the appended question in the two last examples of 610.

2235. *Not* in exclamatory sentences does not serve to express negation; see 2215.

On the other hand, negation may be expressed indirectly, as in the question "*Am I my brother's keeper?*" Also in questions with a pronominal word: *Why should I do that?*

The negative prefix *un-* is also used to express denial (*unpaid*, *unprepared*), as well as what is the opposite (*uneasy*).

Emphasis **2236.** The most general way of emphasizing a statement, or wish, or question, is to stress the most important word.

The use of strong-stressed auxiliaries to emphasize has been discussed in the first volume, 250 ff. It is hardly necessary to mention such adverbs as *certainly*, *undoubtedly*.

Negative words are frequently emphasized: *I haven't understood a word of it. I haven't done a stroke of work.* Such words often lose their original meaning: *I don't care a bit* (*a snap*, *a damn*) [1]).

The adjective *no* is often emphasized by *sort of*. Also with *any*.

> Not unpleasant reading certainly, but equally certainly of no sort of importance. Times Lit. 22/1. 20.
>
> When they absolutely haven't got it and finally can't get it, there's no sort of way for them to live — they become extinguished. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 13.
>
> "As a matter of fact," said Mr. Short confidentially, "personally nobody has any sort of fault to find with them." ib. ch. 21.

2237. It has been shown (1984 ff.) that any part of a sentence can be made emphatic by prefixing *it is* (*was*, etc.). We have a similar construction with the relative *what*.

---

1) An interesting collection of such words has been made by H. Willert, Herrigs Archiv 105, pp. 37—47.

What he loved was Minnebiac, where he built himself a kind of workshop, for composing and carving things out of wood. Cotes, Cinderella, ch. 1.

2238. A similar way of expressing a statement emphatically is by means of a conditional clause as in the following, with emphatic *it is*.

If any one knew the heath well, it was Clym.
Hardy, Return of the Native III ch. 2.

Questions and Answers

2239. It has been pointed out that questions may be expressed by means of a pronominal sentence (2213). Also by a sentence with declarative word-order, but rising intonation (2042 and 2214).

It has also been mentioned that sentences with inverted order may be exclamatory in meaning (2215). The confirmative and sympathetic questions discussed in 610 f. are enclitic; the sympathetic, or as Mr. Palmer [1]) proposes to call them, *commentative* questions, do not really express a question.

The particle *now* is sometimes used to bring out the appeal to the person addressed to confirm the statement.

But with Graham the situation was quite different — now wasn't it? Cotes, Cinderella ch. 13.

2240. The answers to pronominal questions do not differ from other declarative sentences.

Disjunctive questions can be answered by *yes* or *no*. Negative questions can be confirmed by *no* (see 2234), but the answer is often clear only if *no* is followed by a declarative sentence. It has been shown that *no* can be used with a rising intonation to express interest (1356); the same may be said of *yes*.

"I quite agree that it's better to keep out of it as long as one can. But when one *must* do it —".

1) Grammar of Spoken English, p. 263.

"Yes?" he asked as she paused.
Henry James, Golden Bowl p. 28.

Disjunctive questions can also be answered by means of subject and auxiliary only (*Have you seen it? — I have*). This has been illustrated in 622. This method of answering may be combined with a preceding *yes* or *no*.

2241. An emphatic denial may be expressed by *not* with an emphatic personal pronoun; see 980.

'But it'll perhaps rain cats and dogs to-morrow, as it did yesterday, and then you can't go," said Godfrey ....
"Not it," said Dunstan, "I'm always lucky in my weather."
Eliot, Silas Marner I ch. III.

Logical Grammar **2242.** It would be possible to discuss in this way all the ideas expressed by grammatical constructions. Thus we could enumerate the ways in which number is expressed, or sex, or time, or place. An attempt at a complete logical grammar of this kind has been made by Professor Brunot, *La Pensée et la Langue*. The experiment is interesting, no doubt, but hardly likely to find imitators. The general opinion seems to remain unshaken that it is rather the task of logical grammar to supplement formal grammar and to gather up the threads in cases where formal grammar is compelled to separate them.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abbott and Seeley, English Lessons for English People. London. 1871.

Abercrombie, L., Poetry and Contemporary Speech. English Association Leaflet no. 27. 1914.

Academy, The.

Ainger, Life of, see *Sichel*.

Aldrich, W., Cruise of the Dolphin (in Buchanan's Winter-Night, Gruno Series).

Alford, Dean, The Queen's English. London. 1897.

Allen, J. L., The Mettle of the Pasture. London. 1903.

— —, The Bride of the Mistletoe. London. 1909.

— —, The Doctor's Christmas Eve. London. 1911.

— —, A Kentucky Cardinal Macmillan. 1911.

— —, The Choir Invisible. London. Macmillan's Sevenpenny Series.

Anstey, F., Vice Versa. Groningen. 1908. Gruno Series.

Arnold, M, Literature and Dogma. Rational Press Assoc.

— —, Celtic Literature. Everyman Library.

— —, Essays in Criticism. Eversley Series. 1902.

Asquith, H. H, Sir Henry Wotton. Eng. Assoc. Pamphlet no. 44. 1919.

Athen(aeum).

Austen, Jane, ed. Lady Sackville. Regent Library. London 19...

Avebury, Lord, The Scenery of England. London. 1904.

Bailey, J., Dr. Johnson and his Circle. London. 191..

Barbara = Burke, B., Barbara goes to Oxford. London. 1907.

Barchester, see Trollope.

Baring-Gould, S., Old Country Life. Methuen. 1913. (1st ed. 1889).

Barrie, J. M., A Rolling Stone.

— —, Little White Bird.

Belloc—Lowndes, Mrs., A Chink in the Armour. Tauchnitz. 1912.

Bennett, A., The Grand Babylon Hotel. London. Wayfarers' Library.
— —, Clayhanger. Tauchnitz.
— —, Anna of the Five Towns. London. Methuen's Shilling Novels.
— —, Leonora. London. Sixpenny edition.
— —, The Old Wives' Tale. Nelson. 19...
Benson, A. C., The Thread of Gold. 4th ed. London. 1910.
Benson, E. F., David Blaize. Standard Collection, Paris. 1916.
— —, Mr. Teddy. London. 1917.
Bibliophile, The.
Binyon, L., England and Other Poems. London. 1909.
Birrell, A., Obiter Dicta. London. 1910. The Readers' Library.
Black, W., The New Prince Fortunatus. Tauchnitz.
Blackmore, R. D., Lorna Doone. London. (1st. ed. 1869).
Blackwood's Magazine.
Boas, F. S., Shakspere and his Predecessors. London. 1902.
Bode, W., Great Masters of Dutch and Flemish painting. London. 1909.
Bookman, The.
Braddon, Miss, In Great Waters. Tauchnitz. 1877.
Bradley, A. C., Shakespearean Tragedy. London. 1904.
Bradley, A. C., The Reaction against Tennyson. Eng. Assoc. Pamphlet no. 39. 1917.
Bradley, H., The Making of English. London. 1906.
Brewster, W. T., The Writing of English. Home University Library. 191..
Bridges, R., The Poetical Works. Oxford. 1913.
Brodrick, G. C., A History of the University of Oxford. London. 1886.
Brontë, C., Jane Eyre. World's Classics.
— —, Shirley. ib.
— —, Villette. Pocket edition London. 1893.
Brooke, Stopford A., A Primer of English Literature. London. 1892.
Buchanan, G., That Winter-Night. Gruno Series. Groningen. 1909.
Bulwer—Lytton, E., Eugene Aram. 1887.
Burrows, R. M., The Discoveries in Crete. London. 1907.
Calverley, C. S., Idylls of Theocritus. London. 1913. Bell & Sons.
Cambridge History of English Literature vol I—XIV. Cambridge. 1908—16.
Cannan, G., Round the Corner. London. 1913.
Carlyle, T., Sartor Resartus.
Castle, A. & E., Rose of the World. Tauchnitz. 1905.

Chalmers, M. D., Local Government. Macmillan. 1883.
Chambers's Cyclopaedia of English Literature. New edition. 3 volumes. London. 1901 ff.
Chesterton, G. K., The Victorian Age of English Literature. London. 191 . .
Chesterton, G. K., What's Wrong with the World. Tauchnitz. 1910.
Chink, see Belloc.
Classical Review.
Collections = Russel, G. W. E., Collections and Recollections. Tauchnitz. 1898.
Collier, Price, England and the English. London. 1912.
Collins Wilkie, The Woman in White.
Compton Mackenzie, Sinister Street. Two volumes. London. 1913—4.
— —, Guy and Pauline. London. 1915.
— —, Sylvia Scarlett. London. 1919.
— —, Sylvia and Michael. London. 1919.
— —, Rich Relatives. London. 1921.
Conan Doyle, Through the Magic Door. London. 19 . . .
— —, Memoirs of Sherlock Holmes.
Conrad, J., Chance, Tauchnitz. 1914.
Constitutional Essays ed. Wakeman and Hassall. 1901.
Conway, H., Slings and Arrows.
Cornhill Magazine.
Cotes, Mr. E., Cousin Cinderella. Tauchnitz. 1908.
Couch, Sir Arthur Quiller, The Astonishing History of Troy Town (first ed. 1888). London. Wayfarers' Library.
— —, Eighteenth Century Characters. Oxford. Select English Classics.
Courtney, Constitution. Temple Primers. Dent.
Cromer, Lord, Ancient and Modern Imperialism. London. 1910.
Cross, W. L., The development of the English Novel. New York. 1899.
Cunningham, W., Alien Immigrants to England. London. 1897.
Daily Chronicle.
Daily Mail.
Daily News.
Dale, Nelly, Readers, Book II. 1907.
Davis, H. W. C., Medieval Europe. Home Univ. Libr. 19 . . .
Dell, E., Way of an Eagle. London. 1912.
Dennis, J., The Age of Pope. London. 1909.
Deutschbein, M., System der ne. Syntax. Cöthen. 1917.
Dicey, E. V., Law and Public Opinion in the Nineteenth Century. Macmillan. 1905.

Dicey, E. V., Introduction to the Law of the Constitution. 8th ed. 1915.
Dickens, C., David Copperfield.
Disraeli, B, Coningsby.
Ditchfield, P. H., The Parish Clerk. Shilling ed. London. 1913 (first ed. 1907).
Dobson, A., Eighteenth Century Vignettes (first ed. 1892). London. Nelson's Shilling Library.
Doorn, W. van, Golden Hours With English Poets. 2 volumes. Amsterdam. 19 . . .
Echoes from the Oxford Magazine. London. 1908.
Edinburgh Review.
Eliot, G., Adam Bede.
— —, The Mill on the Floss.
— —, Scenes of Clerical Life.
— —, Silas Marner. ed. Vechtman-Veth. Utrecht. 1924.
Elizabeth and her German Garden, Tauchnitz.
— —, Elizabeth in Rügen. Tauchnitz. 19 . . .
— —, The Princess Priscilla's Fortnight. Tauchnitz. 19 . . .
— —, Fräulein Schmidt and Mr. Anstruther. Tauchnitz. 1907.
— —, The Solitary Summer. London. 1910. Macmillan's Sevenpenny series.
Ellinger, J., Vermischte Beiträge zur Syntax. Wien. 1909.
English Illustrated Magazine.
English Literature and the Classics. Collected by G. S. Gordon. Oxford. 1912.
Eng lish) Rev(iew).
Essays = Essays and Studies by Members of the English Association. Oxford 1910 ff.
Everyman.
Fairless, Michael, The Roadmender. London. 1902. (first published as a series of papers in the *Pilot*).
Foat, F. W. G., Grammatical English. London. 1908.
Forster-Gissing = Forster's Life of Dickens abridged by G. Gissing. London. 1903.
Fortnightly Review.
Frances, M. E., Duenna of a Genius Tauchnitz. 19 . . .
Frankau, G., One of Us. London. 1911.
Freeman, E., The Growth of the English Constitution. Tauchnitz. 1872.
Galsworthy, J., Fraternity. Tauchnitz. 1909.
— —, The Man of Property. 1st ed. 1906.
Gardiner and Mullinger, Introduction to the Study of English History. London. 1881.
Garvice, C., Staunch as a Woman.
— —, Lorrie. London. Hodder and and Stoughton. 191 . . .
Gaskell, Mrs., Cranford. Everyman Library.

Gaskell, Mrs., Wives and Daughters. Tauchnitz 1866.
— —, Life of Charlotte Brontë. London. 1892.
Gibson, W., The Queen's Vigil. 1902.
Gill, C., Government and People. London. 1921.
Gissing, G., The Private Papers of Henry Ryecroft.
— —, New Grub Street. London. Sixpenny edition.
Glyn, E., The Contrast and other Stories. Tauchnitz. 1913.
Godley, A. D., Aspects of Modern Oxford. New edition. London. 1910.
Gonner, E. C. K., Common Land and Inclosure. Macmillian. 1912.
Gooch, G. P., History of our Time. Home Univ. Libr. 191 . .
Goodspeed, G. S., A History of the Ancient World. London. 1905.
Greenough and Kidredge, Words and their ways in English Speech. London. 1907.
Günther, R. R., The Oxford Country. London. 1912.
Hammond, J. L. and B., The Village Labourer. New ed. 1920.
Hardy, T., Far from the Madding Crowd.
— —, Return of the Native. 1st ed. 1878.
— —, Life's Little Ironies.
— —, Tess of the d'Urbervilles.
— —, The Dynasts. London. 1903-8.
Harraden, B., The Fowler. 19 . . .
Hartog, P. G., The Writing of English. Oxford. 1917.
Hawthorne, N, Twice-Told Tales. Everyman Series.
Hearnshaw, F. J. C, Municipal Records. London. 1918.
Henderson, M. Sturge, Meredith. London. 1907.
Hichens, R., The Way of Ambition. London. 1913.
History, the quarterly journal of the Historical Association.
Hobbes, J. O., Some Emotions and a Moral. 6d ed. London. 1902.
Hole, Dean, The Memories of. London. Nelson's Sevenpenny Library.
Holmes, O. W., Over the Teacups. London.
—, Autocrat of the Breakfast Table. Everyman.
Hope, A., The Intrusion of Peggy.
— —, A Prisoner of Zenda. Leipzig. Heinemann & Balestier.
Housman, L., A Shropshire Lad. London. 1903.
Hughes, T., Tom Brown's School-days.
Hume, Fergus, Red Money. London. 1911.
Humphrey-Ward, Mrs., William Ashe. Loudon. 19 . . .
Huxley, Essays on Education.
Inns of Court and Chancery, Six Lectures on the. London. 1912.

James, Henry, The Golden Bowl. London. 1905.
——, The Reverberator. London. 1888.
——, The Lesson of the Master.
——, Daisy Miller. Tauchnitz. 1879.
Jerome, J. K., Idle Thoughts of an Idle Fellow.
——, Three Men in a Boat. Groningen. 1912. The Gruno Series.
Jerrold, D., Mrs. Caudle's Curtain Lectures.
Jerrold, W., George Meredith. London. 1902.
Jespersen, O., A Modern English Grammar. Part II. Heidelberg. 1914.
——, Negation in English and other languages. Copenhagen. 1917.
Johnson, C., The Public Record Office. London. 1918.
Johnson, Lionel, Some Poems of. London. 1912.
Jones, H, Browning as a philosophical and religious teacher. Nelson's Library.
Journal of English Studies.
Jowett, B., Select Passages from the Introductions to Plato ed. Lewis Campbell. London. 1902.
Kenealy, A., Thus saith Mrs. Grundy. London. 1911.
Ker, W. P., English Literature. Medieval. London. 19... Home University Library.
King's English, The. Oxford. 1906.
Kingsley, C, Westward Ho!
Kipling, R., The Jungle Book.
——, The Day's Work. Tauchnitz.
Kipling, R., Stalky & Co. Tauchnitz. 1899.
Lang, A., The Blue Fairy-Book.
——, New and Old Letters to Dead Authors. London 1907. Longman's Pocket Library.
Leonard, R. M., A Book of Light Verse. Oxford. 1910.
Literary World.
Longfellow, Poetical Works.
Mackenzie, *see* Compton Mackenzie.
Magnus, L., A Primer of Wordsworth. London. 1897.
Mair, G. H., English Literature: Modern. London. Home University Library.
Maitland, F. W., The Constitutional History of England. Combridge. 1913.
——, Justice and Police. Malet, L., Sir Richard Calmady. London.
Mangan, see van Doorn, Golden Hours.
Marryat, The Children of the New Forest.
Margoliouth, D. S., Mohammedanism. Home Univ. Libr. 191..
Martineau, Harriet, History of the Thirty Years' Peace. Bohn's Libr.
Mason, W., The Broken Road.

Masson, Flora, The Brontës. London. 1912. The People's Books.
Masterman, C. F. G., The Condition of England. London. 1912 (1st ed. 1909).
Mätzner, E., Englische Grammatik. Berlin. 1885.
Mediaeval England ed. H. W. C. Davis. Oxford. 1924.
Meredith, G., The Ordeal of Richard Feverel. London. Pocket edition.
— —, Diana of the Crossways. id.
— —, Egoist. London. 1900.
— —, Rhoda Fleming. Sixpenny edition.
— —, The Tragic Comedians. London. Pocket ed.
— —, The Amazing Marriage. London, Constable. 1906.
— —, Lord Ormont and his Aminta. London. Pocket ed.
A Mere Woman by Vera Nikli. Duckworth. 1913.
Millar, J. H., The Mid-eighteenth Century. Edinburgh. 1902. Periods of European Literature.
Modern Language Notes.
Mod(ern) Lang(uage) Teaching.
Montgomery, F., Misunderstood. London. Macmillan's Sevenpenny Series.
Montgomery, M., Modern British Problems. Frankfurt. 1912.
Moore, G., The Lake. Tauchnitz.
— —, G., The Untilled Field. London. 1903.
Moore Smith, G. C., The Poet and the Artist. English Association Leaflet no. 28. 1914.
Morley, J., On Compromise. London. 1901.
Morning Leader.
Morrison, Tales of Mean Streets. London. Methuen's Shilling Novels.
Morsbach, L, Grammatisches und Psychologisches Geschlecht im Englischen. Berlin. 1913.
Muloch, Miss, John Halifax.
Murray, G, Euripides and his Age. Home University Library.
— —, See *Essays*.
Murray, Sir J. A. H., The Evolution of English Lexicography. Oxford.
Nation, The.
Neck, van, Easy English Prose. Groningen.
New Statesman.
Nineteenth Century (and After).
Niven, F., The Porcelain Lady. London. 1913.
Odgers, W. B., Local Government. London. 1899.
Oxf(ord)and Camb(ridge) Rev(iew).
Oxford, Described by F. D. How. Pictured by E. W. Haslehust Blackie. 19...
Onions, C. T., An Advanced English Syntax. London. 1911.
Oppenheim, E. P., A People's Man. Nelson's Continental Library.
Orczy, Baroness, Meadowsweet.

Palmer, Harold E, A Grammar of Spoken English. Cambridge. 1924.
Patterson, J. H., The Man-Eaters of Tsavo. London. Macmillan.
Patterson, J. E., The Story of Stephen Compton. London. 1913.
Patton, J., The English Village. New York. 1919.
Peard, F. M., Madame's Granddaughter. Tauchnitz. 1887.
Pearsall Smith, L., The English Language. London. Home University Library.
Perse Playbooks, Cambridge. 1912.
Pett Ridge, W., Name of Garland. Tauchnitz. 1907.
— —, Mord Em'ly. London.
— —, Lost Property. London.
Phillpotts, E., The Beacon. London. 1915.
Pickthall, M., Larkmeadow. London. 1913.
Pilot, The.
Porcelain Lady, *see* Niven.
Poutsma, H., A Grammar of Late Modern English. Groningen. 1904—1914.
— —, The Characters of the English Verb. Groningen. 1921.
— —, Mood and Tense. Groningen. 1922.
— —, Infinitive, Gerund, and Participles. Groningen. 1923.
Punch.
Pusey's Life, The Story of, by the author of Charles Lowder. London. 1900.
Quarterly Review.
Raleigh, W., Style. London. 1907.
— —, The English Novel. London. 1894.
— —, The War and the Press. Oxford. 1918.
Rev(iew) of Rev(iews).
Rider Haggard, King Solomon's Mines.
Rider Haggard, Mr. Meeson's Will.
Rossetti, D. G., Poems. London. 1910.
R(ational) P(ress) A(ssociation) Annual. London. 1915.
Ruskin, Modern Painters.
— —, Sesame. London. 1895.
Rutherford, Mark, Autobiography of, London.
Sackville, Lady, *see* Austen.
Saintsbury, G., A Manual of English Prosody. London. 1910.
Sapir, E. Language, Oxford. 1921.
Sargeaunt, J., Annals of Westminster School. London. 1898.
Scott, W., Lives of the Novelists ed Dobson. World's Classics.
Seccombe and Allen, The Age of Shakespeare. London.
Sefton Delmer, F., English Literature. 3rd ed. Berlin. 1912.
Shorthouse, J. H., John Inglesant (first ed. 1881). London. 1905. Illustrated Pocket Classics.
Sichel, Edith, The Life and Letters of Alfred Ainger. London. 1906.

Sidgwick, Mrs., The Severins. London. Methuen's Shilling Library.
Sinister Street, *see* Compton Mackenzie.
Snaith, J. C., The Principal Girl. Tauchnitz. 1912
Soames, L., Introduction to the study of Phonetics. London. 1891.
Spectator.
Spence, Dean, A History of the English Church. London. 1901. Temple Primers.
Standard.
Stephen, Leslie, George Eliot. London. English Men of Letters. 1902.
— —, English Literature and Society in the Eighteenth Century. London. 1910. Reader's Library.
— —, The English Utilitarians. London. 1900.
Stephen Compton, see Patterson.
Stevenson, R. L., Virginibus Puerisque.
— —, The Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde. ed. Schutt. Utrecht. 1923. (1st ed. 1885).
Storm, J., Englische Philologie. Zweite Auflage. Leipzig. 1892—1896.
Strachey, Lytton, Eminent Victorians. London. 1918.
Stubbs, W., Lectures on Early English History, ed. A. Hassall. London. 1906.
Swaen, A. E. H., English Prose. Zwolle.
Sweet, H, A New English Grammar. Oxford. 1892 and 1903.
— —, Elementarburch ; des gesprochenen Englisch. 3e aufl. Oxford. 1904.
— —, A Primer of Spoken English. Oxford. 1895.
— —, Primer of Phonetics. Oxford. 1906.
— —, A History of English Sounds. Oxford. 1888.
Swinburne, A. C., Charles Dickens. London. 1913.
Synge, M. B., A Short History of Social Life in England. London. 1918.
Teacher's World.
Teaching of English, The, English Assoc. Pamphlet no. 43. 1918.
Temple Thurston, E., The City of Beautiful Nonsense. London. 1918.
Thackeray, W., Roundabout Papers.
— —, Vanity Fair.
Times W. = Times Weekly edition.
Times Ed. S. = Times, Educational Supplement.
Times Lit. = Times Literary Supplement.
Trollope, A., Barchester Towers. Everyman Library.
— —, The Warden. Everyman Libr.

——, The Last Chronicle of Barset. Everyman Library.
——, The Three Clerks. World's Classics.
——, Dr. Thorne. Everyman Library.
——, Dr. Wortle's School. Tauchnitz.
——, The Prime Minister.
Twain, Mark, The Prince and the Pauper. Tauchnitz.
Vachell, H, Quinneys'. Tauchnitz. 1914.
—— The Pinch of Prosperity. London. Wayfarers' Library.
Vachell, H., Spragge's Canyon. Colard. Paris. 1915.
——, Brothers. Tauchnitz. 1906.
Verrall, A. W., Lectures on Dryden. Cambridge. 1914.
Vinogradoff, P., Common Sense in Law. Home Univ. Libr. 191 . .
Wakeman, H. O., An Introduction to the History of the Church of England. London. 1914.
Walker, H., Literature of the Victorian Era London. 1910.
Wallace, C. W., The Evolution of the English drama up to Shakespeare. London. 1912.
Ward, A. W., Dickens. London. 1909
Washington-Irving, The Sketch-Book. London. 1902. Cassel's Standard Library.
Waugh, Alec. The Loom of Youth. 1917.
Webb, S. and B., English Local Government from the Revolution to the Municipal Corporation Act. Volume. I. London. 1906.
Wells, H. G, The First Men in the Moon. London. Nelson's Sevenpenny Series.
——, Tono-Bungay. English Review.
——, The Country of the Blind and Other Stories. London.
——, The Wife of Sir Isaac Harman. Londen 1914.
——, Joan and Peter. London. 1918.
——, What is Coming? London, 1916.
Westlake, H. F., Westminster. London 1919.
Westminster School, *see* Sargeaunt.
Western, A., On Sentence-Rhythm and Word-Order in Modern English. Christiania. 1908.
Weyman, S., The Red Robe.
Wharton, Edith, The House of Mirth. Londen. 1912. Macmillan's Sevenpenny Series.
Whibley, C, Thackeray. Edinburgh. 1903.
White, P., Mr. John Strood. London. 1906.
Wilcox, W. P., Wings of Desire. London. 1912..
Williams, Harold, Modern English Writers. London. 1918.

Wyld, H. C., The Place of the Mother Tongue in National Education. London. 1906.

— —, The Historical Study of the Mother Tongue. London. 19...

— —, The Teaching of Reading. London. 1908.

— —, A Short History of English. London. 1914.

Yeats, W. B., Collected Works. Stratford. 1908.

York, Described by G. Benson. Pictured by E. W. Haslehust. Blackie. 1911.

INDEX

About, To be -, 138, 411.
Absolute Adjuncts, 1898 ff.
Absolute Genitive, 896, 938 f.
Absolute Gerund, 447.
Absolute Infinitive, 392.
Absolute Participle, 559 ff.
Absolute Superlative, 1549 ff.
Abstract Nouns, 773 ff.; 860 ff. See also the *Articles*.
Accusative with Gerund, 451 f.
Accusative with Infinitive, Plain Infinitive, 296 ff.; Infinitive with *to*, 352 ff. See also Index s. v. *Accusative with Participle*.
Accusative with Participle, 531 ff.
Adjective Clauses, 1926 ff.
Adjectives, used attributively, 1845 ff.; used predicatively, 1887, 1892. See also *Conversion*.
Adverb Adjuncts, 1849 ff.; Place of, 2128 ff.
Adverb Clauses, 1939 ff.
Adverbial use of Pronouns, see Index s.v. *Pronouns*.
Adverbs, qualifying attributive nouns, 1763 ff.; qualifying adjectives used as nouns, 1773. See the other sections on *Conversion*, *Sentence-Structure*, and *Wordorder*.
Afloat, 1892.
Afraid, 1892.
All, 1313 ff.; *for all* 1319, 1698; *all but* 1320.
Alms, 826.
Alone, 1892.
Analogical Compounds, 1688.
Analogy, 1816.
Anaphoric use, of Personal Pronouns, 996 ff.; of Demonstrative Pronouns, 1192 ff.; of the Definite Article, 1225 of *one*, 1371 ff.
And, as a subordinating conjunction, see Index s.v. *Apparent Coordination*.
Anomalous Verbs 26 ff.
Answers, — to Disjunctive Questions, 620, 622.
Antecedent Pronouns, 1022 ff., 1189 f.
Anticipatory use of Demonstrative Pronouns, 1192.

The numbers refer to the sections.

Apologia, 2017.
Apparent Accusative with Infinitive, 362.
Apparent Plain Infinitive, 316 ff.
Apparent Simple Sentences, 1974 f.; Apparent Coordination, 1976 ff.; Apparent Compound Sentences, 1984 ff.; Apparent Subordinate Clauses, 1992.
Appended Clauses, 1961 ff.
Appended Statements, 614 ff.
Appositions, 1844.
Appositional Clauses, 1925.
Appositional Compounds 807 ff., 1741 ff.
Apt, 183.
Articles, 1214 ff. Also 1108.
As, see the sections on *Relative Pronouns*, and on *Sentence-Structure*.
Asleep, 1892.
Aspect, 62 f., 161 ff, 311, 412 ff.,
Attributive Adjuncts, 1840 ff.; Attributive nouns, 846 ff., 911 ff., 917 ff.
Attributive Participles, 514 ff.
Attributive Possessives, 1074 ff.
Aught, 1439.
Auxiliaries, Classes of, 601 ff.; preterites of, 604 ff.; repetition of, 609 ff., 2176; as verbs of full meaning, 624 f. See further under *Be*, *Can*, etc. Also 180 ff.
Awake, 1892.
Aware, 1892.
Back-formation, 1814 ff.
Bakerloo, 1824.
Barracks, 827, 2009.
Be, 27 f., 626 ff.
Beasts, Names of, 832 ff.
Become, as an auxiliary of the passive, 289.
Beechen, 1728.
Begin, 183, 495 f.
Behold, with Accusative and Plain Infinitive, 300.
Bibble-babble, 1820.
Bike, 1809
Birchen, 1731.
Birds, Names of, 832 ff.
Both, see *Indefinite Pronouns*.
Body, Compounds with, 1422 ff.
Bolshevy, 1815.
Brazen, 1730, 1736.
Bring to bear on, 365.
Brush, 1810.
Burgle, 1814.
Bus, 1809.
But, 1177 f., 1941.
By, 1475.
Can, 37, 636 ff., 765 ff.
Candlelight, 844.
Cannon, 836.
Caretake, 1815.
Case, in — as a conjunction, 1479.
Cases of nouns, 871 ff.
Cease, 183.
Certain, 1326 f.
Chicken, 827.
Circularize, 1570.
Clap-trap, 1822
Class-nouns, 771 ff.

Clauses, Form, 1910; function, 1911 ff.; without any connecting word, 1919 f., 1933 ff., 1944, 1948 f., 1952.
Clergy, 2013.
Closen, 1566.
Collective nouns, 771 ff. See also the *Articles*, and *Concord*.
Comber, 1810.
Come, 181.
Comfy, 1811.
Common Case of Nouns, 872 ff.; as Subject of the Infinitive, 315, 396 ff.; as Subject of the Gerund, 441 ff.; as Subject of the Participle, 559 ff.; Genitive and Common Case, 917 ff.
Compound Nouns, 801 ff.
Compound Titles, 812 ff.
Compound Verbal Forms, 57 ff.
Compound Verbs (*to put down*, etc.), 2153 ff.
Concord of Nouns and Attributive Adjuncts, 2031 f.
Place of Attributive Adjuncts, 2089 ff.
Concord of Tense, 149 ff. See also the chapters on *Concord*, and on *Gender of Nouns*.
Confirmative Questions, 610.
Confirmative Statements, 618 f.
Conjugation of the verb *to call*, 72.
Conjunctions, in coordinate sentences, 1906 ff.; in compound sentences, 1910 ff.; conjunctions and prepositions, 989 ff.; relative conjunctions, see *Relative Pronouns*; absence of Conjunctions, see Index s.v. *Clauses*.
Consonantal irregular Verbs, 16 f.
Contact-compounds, 1689.
Content, 1892.
Contents, Clauses of, 1925
Continuative Clauses, 90 f., 1126 ff., 1926 ff, 1958, 1988 ff.
Continuative Perfect, 113.
Continue, 183.
Craft, 835.
Cycle, 1809.
Dampen, 1566.
Dare, 29 f., 643 ff.
Darkle, 1814.
Data, 2017.
Dativus ethicus, 981, 1869.
Dativus sympatheticus, 1087, 1868.
Day, the — as a conjunction, 1479.
Day- and nightmare, 1816.
Declarative Sentences, 2007 ff. See also *Wordorder*.
Defective Verbs, 36 ff.
Deictic Pronouns, 996 ff, 1182 ff, 1218 ff.
Denials, see Index s.v. *Answers*.
Dependent Sentences, 2218 ff.
Derivation, 1565 ff. See also 1700 ff.
Dignity of, 1307 f.
Direct and Indirect Style, 1921 ff. See also Index s.v. *Concord of Tense*.
Diseases, Names of 1264.
Distance-compounds, 1689.

Do, 31 f., 646 ff.
Double Sentences, Subjects, etc, 1902 ff.
Each other, 1408.
Earthen, 1731.
Effective, see Index s.v. *Aspect.*
Either, 1099, 1330 ff.
Electrocute, 1824.
Else, 1409.
Emphasis, 2236 ff.
Enough, Place of, 2135 f.
Emphatic Mood, 250 ff.
Emphatic Personal Pronouns, 1057 ff.
Emphatic Possessives, 1105 ff.
Endings, of the Verb, 1—13; of the Plural of Nouns, 777 ff; of the Genitive, 879 ff.; of the Comparison of Adjectives and Adverbs 1845 ff.
See also Index s.v. *Derivation.*
Eurasian, 1824.
Every, 1099.
Exam, 1809 f.
Exempt, 1892.
Exclamations, Plain Infinitive in — 206; Infinitive with *to* in — 394 f.
Exclamatory Sentences, 2007. See also the sections on *Infinitive* and *Wordorder.*
Fall, 182.
Fiddle-faddle, 1820.
Finish, 183.
Finite Verb, 2 ff., 73 ff.
Fishes, Names of, 832 ff.
Flaxen, 1727 ff.
Flim-flam, 1821.
Flip-flap, 1820.
Foot, 855 ff., 2036.
For with (pro)noun and Infinitive, 379 ff.
Forgettory, 1816.
Form and Function of Sentences, 1973 ff.
Formal *it*, 1000 ff., 1835.
Formal *there*, 265 f., 1007, 1836 ff., 2063 ff.
Forms and Verbs in literary English only, 44 ff.
Free Adjuncts 1894 ff.; see Index s.v. *Infinitive*, *Gerund*, *Participle.*
Frenchify, 1568.
Frequentative, see Index s. v. *Aspect.*
Future Tenses, forms, 120 ff.; use 126 ff.; modal future, 128 ff.; other forms to express the future, 137 f. See *Present Tense.*
Gallows, 830.
Galumphing, 1824.
Gender, 940 ff.
Genitive, 879 ff.; in Compounds, 902 ff.; as subject of the gerund, 436 ff.
Genuine Accusative with Infinitive, 362.
Gerrymander, 1824.
Gerund, 11, 425 ff.; Infinitive and Gerund 474 ff.; Gerund and Participle, 587 ff.

The numbers refer to the sections.

Get, as an auxiliary of the Passive, 289. Also *to have got* 143, 171, 664, 668.
Go, with Plain Infinitive, 295; *To be going*, 138, 411.
Golden, 1727 ff.
Group-genitive, 881.
Group-plural, 820 ff. See also 1116, 1309 f.
Group-verbs 67 ff.
Gym., 1810.
Handy-dandy, 1822.
Hanky, 1811.
Harum-scarum, 1822.
Have, 33 ff., 662 ff., 2110, 175 f.; *To have, must, shall Compared*, 745 ff.
Help with Plain-Infinitive 295, with Accusative and Plain Infinitive 301 f.
Helter-skelter, 1822.
Hempen, 1728.
Higgledy-piggledy, 1822.
Horse, see Index s. v. *foot*.
Horsepower, 844.
House-clean, 1815.
How, Compounds in —, 1441.
Hurry-burry, 1822.
Hurry-scurry, 1822.
Hustings, 827.
-ics, Nouns in, 2011.
Immediate Future, 138.
Imperative, 10, 218 ff. See also the sections on the *Meaning of Sentences*, and on *Word-order*.
Imperfective, see Index s.v. *Aspect*,
Impersonal Passive, 283.
Inchoative, see Index s. v. *Aspect*.
Independent Possessives, 1090 ff.
Independent Relatives, 1140 ff.
Indicative, 260.
Indirect Style, 1921 ff.
Infinitive, Plain —, 290 ff.; — with *to*, 324 ff.
Infinitive and Gerund Compared, 474 ff.
Infinitive and Participle Compared, 517 ff.
Inorganic *for*, see Index s. v. *Prepositional Accusative with Infinitive*.
Intensifying Adjuncts, 1450 ff.
Intransitive, 1873 ff.
Invariable Verbs, 15 ff.
Inverted Wordorder, 2046 ff., 2066 ff.
Irregular Verbs, 15 ff.
It, see the sections on Gender of Nouns, Personal Pronouns. Also Index s.v. *Infinitive, Gerund, Participle*.
Keep, 182.
Kiff-cough, 1818.
Kind of, 69 f., 820 ff., 1116, 1309.
Lab., 1809 f.
Lake, 1231.
Leaden, 1727 ff.
Leathern, 1727 ff.
Leggy-peggy, 1822.
Let, 683 ff.

Lib-Labs, 1809.
Life-mate, 1816.
Links, 827.
Literary English, 6, 8, 28, 32, 35, 37 ff., 44 ff,, 226 ff., 367 ff., 439 f, 607, 658 ff., 898 f., 966 ff., 1025, 1050 ff., 1104, 1130 f., 1153 f., 1167, 1179, 1213.
Maffick, 1814.
Material nouns and adjectives, 1727 ff.
Maths, 1810.
May, 38, 686 ff.
Meals, Names of, 1261.
Meaning of Sentences, 2210 ff.
Mine host, 1089.
Mixed Verbs, 22 ff.
Modal Preterite 105 f.; — Pluperfect 117 f.; — Future 128 ff. — Perfect Infinitive, 407 ft.
Modality, 2223 ff.
Moment, the — as a conjunction, 1479.
Mood, 64, 217 ff.
Mount, 1231.
Must, 41, 701 ff., 745 ff.
Muth, 1602, 1814.
Namby-pamby, 1822.
Naught, 1439 f.
Necessarily-reflexive Verbs, 1866.
Need, 42, 708 ff.
Negation, 2227 ff.
Neither, 1907 f., 2020.
Neuter Pronouns with reference to persons, 944 ff., 1113, 1184, 1195.
News, 868, 2016.
No, 1344 ff.
Nominative of Personal Pronouns, 977 ff.
Nominative with Gerund, 452.
Nominative with Infinitive, 271, 304 f., 374 ff
Nominative with Participle, 533.
No more, 1909. Non-connected Clauses, see Index s.v. *Clauses*.
None. 1425 ff.
Non-finite Verb, Forms: 12 ff.
Normal wordorder, 2039 ff., 2066 ff.
Nosy-posy, 1822.
Not, 1346 ff.
Nothing, 1432 ff.
Notice, with Accusative and plain infinitive 300.
Nought, 1439 f.
Noun-clauses, 1912 ff.
Nouns, Classification, 770 ff,; Number, 777, ff.. 825.; Case, 871 ff.; Gender, 940 ff. Number of Attributive Nouns, 846 ff., 917 ff., 1720, 1741 ff.
Numeratives, 864 ff.
O, with a modal preterite, 607.
Objects, 1857 ff., 1871 f. See also Index s. v. *Dativus*. Place of Objects, 2082 ff.
Object-clauses, 1912 ff.
Observe, with Accusative and Plain Infinitive, 300; with Accusative and Infinitive with *to*, 368.
Of, 1447 ff.

The numbers refer to the sections.

Oh, with an infinitive, 508.
Omission of Subject, 1994 ff.; of Predicative, 1999 ff.; of Relative Pronoun, 1933 ff. Of Conjunction, see Index s. v. *Clauses*.
One, 1358 ff.; Compounds in, 1419 ff.
One another, 1408.
Only, Place of, 2139 f.
Onomatopœia, 1825.
Optative, see Index s. v. *Subjunctive*.
Optative Sentences, 2007 ff.
Ought, verb, 41, 714 ff.; pronoun, 1439.
Own, 1105 ff.
Pains, 2032.
Pair, 863, 864 f.
Parenthetic Sentences, 1959 ff.
Participles, 11, 514 ff.; Infinitive and Participle, 537 ff.; Gerund and Participle, 587 ff.; Place of 2114 ff.
Passive Voice, 261 ff.
People, 855 f, 2036.
Perceive, with Accusative and Plain Infinitive, 300; with Accusative and Infinitive with *to*, 368.
Perfective, see Index s. v. *Aspect*.
Persons of the Verb, 74. See also Index s. v. *Concord*.
Photo, 1809.
Pi, 1810.
Pick-me-up, 1807.
Piggy-wiggy, 1822.
Pinny, 1811,
Pitter-patter, 1820.
Places, Names of, 1262 f.
Plain Infinitive, see Index s. v. *Infinitive*.
Plenty, 877.
Police, 855, 2013 ff.
Politics, 2031, 2033.
Portmanteau-words, 1824.
Post-genitive, 889 ff.
Post-possessive, 1094 ff.
Potential, see Index s. v. *Subjunctive*.
Pram, 1809.
Pre, 1810.
Predicate, Forms of, see chapter on *SentenceStructure*.
Predicate Clauses, 1924.
Predication, Auxiliaries of, 603 f.
Predicative Adjectives, 1887, 1892.
Predicative Adjuncts, Place of, 2087 ff.
Predicative Adverbs, 1890.
Predicative Nouns, 1292 ff., 1755 ff., 1833 ff., 1885 ff.
Predicative Participles, 521 ff.
Prep, 1809 f.
Prepositional Accusative with Infinitive, 379 ff,
Prepositional Accusative with Gerund, 450.
Prepositional Noun Clauses 1918,
Preposition-equivalents, 1288.
Prepositions, 1442 ff. See the chapter on *Conversion*.
Prepositions and Conjunctions, 989 ff.

Prepositional Objects, 1871 ff.
Pro, 1810.
Pro-genitive, 911, 1675.
Progressive, 186 ff. For *progressive clauses*, see Index s.v. *Restrictive*.
Pro-infinitive, see Index s.v. *to*.
Prom., 1809.
Pronominal Adverbs, 1028ff., 1123, 1155 ff., 1212 f.
Pronouns, Concord of-, 2034 ff.
Pronouns, Adverbial use of, 1203, 1235 ff., 1319 f., 1324 f., 1334, 1350 ff., 1427 f.; 1434 ff. See also 1002 ff. on *it*, and *Addendum* in Volume II. p. 311.
Proper Names, 1300 ff.
Propword *one*, anaphoric, 1370 ff.; independent 1391 ff. *Thing*, 1417.
Provisional Pronouns, 1005 ff.
Provisional Subject and Object, see Index s.v. *it* and *there*.
Pub, 1809.
Public, 855 f., 2013.
Questions and Answers, 2239 ff.
Quotations, Direct, 2078 ff.
Quite, Place of, 2137 f.
Rather, Place of, 2137 f.
Reach-me-down, 1807.
Reason, the — as a conjunction, 1479.
Recollect, 499.
Reduplication, see *Repetition*.
Referring Pronouns, see Index s.v. *Anaphoric*, *Anticipatory*, and *Provisional*.
Reflexive Pronouns, 1020f., 1057ff.
Reflexive Voice, 1864 ff.
Regalia, 2017.
Related Participles, 553 ff.
Relative Pronouns, 1124 ff. See also the chapter on *Sentence-Structure* (*Adjective Clauses*).
Remember, 499·
Repetition, 172, 198 ff., 1817 ff.
Restrictive Clauses, 1926 ff. See Index s.v. *Continuative Clauses*.
Resultative Perfect, 112.
Riff-raff, 1822.
Roly-poly, 1822.
Sail, 835.
Sec., 1810.
Semi-compounds, 1698.
Semi-indirect style, 1922 f.
Sentences as Nouns, 1807.
Sentences without a subject, or without a predicate, 1993 ff.
Sentence-words, 2003 f.
Several, 1411.
Shall, 39, 717 ff. See *Future Tenses*, and *To Have*.
Shell, 835.
Shore-going, 1816.
Shortening, 1809.
Shot, 835
Silken, 1727 ff.
Sing-song, 1822.
Skimble-skamble, 1821.
Snipocracy, 1816.
So, 1028 ff.
Soberize, 1570.
Some, 1412 ff.

The numbers refer to the sections.

Somewhat, 1438.
Sort of, see Index s.v. *Kind of*.
Speechify, 1568.
Speedometer, 1816.
Split Infinitive, 2162 ff.
Squarson, 1824.
Squirearchy, 1816.
Stage, 1810
Stone, 844.
Stop, 183.
Style, Direct, Indirect, and Semi-indirect, 1921 ff.
Subject, Grammatical, psychological, and formal, 1822 ff.
Subject, of the Plain Infinitive, 313 ff.; — of the Infinitive with *to*, 896 ff.: of the Gerund 433 ff.
Subject with Infinitive, see Index s.v. *Nominative with Infinitive*.
Subjunctive, 11, 226 ff.
Such, 1204 ff.
Summons, 830.
Sundry, 1416.
Symbolic Words, 1813.
Sympathetic Questions, 611 ff., 2176.
Syntactical Compounds, 1688.
Tenses, 57 ff., 75 ff., 589 f. See also the sections on the *Progressive*, *Plain Infinitive*, *Infinitive with to*, *Gerund*, *and Participles*.
That, as a demonstrative 1181 ff., and *Addendum*, Vol. II, p. 311; as a relative 1159; as a conjunction, 1479.
There, as a formal subject, 265 ff., 1836 ff.; 2025; 2063 ff. See Index s. v. *Infinitive*, *Gerund*, *Participle*.
Thing, 1417; Compounds in, 1432 ff.
Time, Nouns of, 1265.
Time, by the —, as a conjunction, 1479; *last* —, 1479.
Tip-tappings, 1820.
Tip-top, 1822
To, as a pro-infinitive, 1471. See also 1675.
To-toes, 1822.
Traditional absence of the article, 1266.
Transitive, 1873 ff.
Unctimony, 1816.
United States, 2016.
Unrelated Infinitive, 393.
Unrelated Participle, 567 ff.
Used, 43 ff., 750 ff., 765 ff.
Vaults, 827.
Verbal Nouns and Subordinate Clauses 507 ff.
Verbal Phrases, 279 ff., 1291.
Verbs used in Literary English only, 44 ff.
Vermin, 855.
Vicarious auxiliary, 655.
Vocalic irregular Verbs, 21 ff.
Voice, 65 f., 261 ff. For the Active and the Reflexive Voice, see 1878 ff. See also Index s. v. *Infinitive*, *Gerund*, *Participle*.
Voice, 65 f., 261 ff.

The numbers refer to the sections.

Watch, with Accusative and Plain Infinitive, 300.
Way, Compounds in, 1441.
Wheaten, 1727 ff.
Where, Compounds in, 1441.
Will, 40, 753 ff., 765 ff. See also the sections on *the Future Tenses*.
Wild Beasts, Names of, 832 ff.
Wishy washy, 1822.
With, 1476.
Without, as a conjunction, 1806.
Wont, 1892.
Wordorder, 2038 ff.
Worsen, 1567.
Word-Groups, Fixed Order in —, 2167.
Yours truly, 1102.
Zoo, 1809.

The numbers refer to the sections.

WESTFIELD LIBRARY

WITHDRAWN
FROM STOCK
QMUL LIBRARY